The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 18, 1886.

The Week.

THE Senate, in executive session on Thursday, agreed to confirm the nomination of Richard S. Dement as Surveyor-General of Utah, in place of General Salomon, suspended. We are told by the reports that there was a contest over the appointment, lasting for several hours, but that the friends of the Administration finally won. As there is a Republican majority in the Senate, this must mean that enough Republicans voted with the Democrats to secure a majority, and we infer that this number of Republicans was made up of Senators who have friends in office whom they do not wish to see disturbed. There was no other reason for voting in favor of Dement. He is an Illinois tailor, from Commissioner Sparks's district, who has no fitness whatever for the position. He had probably never seen a surveyor's instrument in his life when he was appointed. The man whom he superseded was a brother of ex-Governor Salomon and a general in the Union army. No cause was ever given him for his suspension, and none could be, as he had performed his duties honorably and well. Here was an opportunity for the Senate to make a double point on the Administration, by rejecting a bad appointment and expressing its disapproval of the removal of a worthy official. But though the nomination had been reported unfavorably from Committee, and although all the Democratic members of that Committee who were present voted to reject it, the Senate confirmed it. As its confirmation was given in secret, nobody can be held responsible for it There could be no better illustration than this of the evil influence of the secret session. It is and always has been a shield for unworthy nominees and for unworthy Senators who help them into office.

Senator Gorman, of Maryland, is now trying to capture the offices of United States District Attorney and Marshal for two of his tools, and led all the Gorman members of the State's delegation in Congress to the White House the other day, to back up his demand for the appointment of two professional Democratic politicians, named Talbott and Fenton. We are glad to observe, from a report of the interview in a Democratic paper of Baltimore, that the President gave the patronage-mongers little encouragement. Mr. Cleveland is quoted as saying that he would like to appoint as Marshal Colonel Franklin, brother of General Franklin, and himself a gallant soldier, not only because he had been recommended by the late General Hancock, but because he was in every respect qualified for the position; and that he was greatly embarrassed by the recommendations of the Maryland Congressmen in these particular cases because he had received protests against the appointment of Messrs. Fenton and Talbott, not only from their political opponents, but from gentlemen of high standing in Maryland who were known to be of the same party as the gentlemen present. The President would have been justified in treating the Gorman delegation with even less than this scanty consideration. After his experience with Higgins, Thomas, and Rasin, the simple fact that Mr. Gorman recommends a man should be sufficient reason with Mr. Cleveland for peremptorily refusing even to consider his candidacy.

The action of the House Committee on Education on Friday, in voting to postpone consideration of the Blair bill until the middle of April, justifies that confidence in its rejection by the lower branch which led so many cowardly members of the upper branch publicly to vote for a bill which they privately condemned, in order to "keep their records straight." Every week's discussion weakens the measure in public estimation, and another month's riddling of the project by the press will leave it few defenders.

The keen scrutiny to which the Blair bill is now being subjected by the press is clearly exposing its many vicious principles. As finally passed by the Senate it is proposed that the educational subsidies shall be distributed among the States upon the basis of their illiteracy, as shown by the census of 1880, until the census of 1890 is taken, when a new distribution shall be made. The Cleveland *Leader* points out the inevitable influence of this provision to lessen rather than increase the disposition of the Southern people to improve their schools during the next four years, since "it will be to the interest of every State to make a bad showing of illiteracy in 1890," so as to get the biggest possible share of the appropriations during the following years.

Mr. Reagan, of Texas, has been a good many years at work regulating inter-State commerce by law, and has succeeded once at least in getting the House of Representatives to agree with him. He has introduced his bill again this session and has got his committee at work upon it, and will probably pass it in some shape. It provides against all the evils of railroad management except that of total stoppage of inter-State commerce. This happens to be the condition of things in a large share of the section of country of which Mr. Reagan is a distinguished representative and political leader. We therefore commend to him and his committee the existing state of affairs in Texas, Arkansas, and Missouri as a topic for early consideration. In order to regulate inter-State commerce it is necessary to have some. We can conceive of the Southwestern blockade operating all over the country. We can imagine a case where all discriminations and irregularities in freight charges would be obliterated in a sudden stoppage of intercommunication like that which took place in 1877 in the chief trunk lines of the country. The existing blockade on the South western roads may be raised within a short time, or it may become more stringent and unbearable. It may be raised peacefully or otherwise. However much we may hope for orderly conduct on the part of the strikers, the experience of 1877 justifies very grave apprehensions when the Missouri Pacific officers attempt to start their trains with new hands.

If Congress has the power to regulate commerce among the several States, it must possess the power to keep it going in so far as unlawful obstacles are thrown in its way. Of course men cannot be compelled to work on terms disagreeable to them, or to work at all if they prefer not to. But when any car-load of freight has been started on its journey from one State to another and its passage is resisted by violence, the power to assist and force it through to its destination undoubtedly resides in the national Government, having been put there in express terms by the Constitution. When Mr. Jefferson Davis and his confederates sought to establish an obstruction to commerce on the Mississippi River at the Tennessee border, the power of the Government was invoked to clear it away. The first tentative efforts of the Government to deal with the rebellion were based upon commercial and fiscal regulations and considerations. The great speech of Senator Douglas, at Springfield, Illinois, which aroused and confirmed the loyalty of his party of the Northwest, was grounded upon the commercial rights of the people of that section of the Union, whose pathway to the sea was disputed by forces "bearing new and odious banners" unknown to the law and Constitution of the United States.

The proposition or offer of Mr. T. V. Powderly, Master Workman of the Knights of Labor, to go to Texas to arbitrate the differences between the receiver of the Texas Pacific Railroad and the Knights, was inspired by good motives, and is so far entitled to commendation. But it was grounded upon the misconception of supposing that there was something to arbitrate. The truth is, that all the powers of arbitration were assumed by the Circuit Court of the United States when the road became bankrupt. This is no fanciful statement of the case. The facts perfectly support the theory upon which Receiver Brown's reply was based. The Texas Pacific Road is for all present purposes a cadaver; the Knights of Labor have struck against a corpse. Undertaker Brown is under no compulsion to pay dividends, interest, running expenses, wages, or anything else. The Government of the United States is, however, under obligation to protect the property, and to arrest and punish all persons who unlawfully molest it. The situation into which the Knights might have brought a more flourishing property—that is, ruin—was the situation in which they began the fight. It is quite true, therefore, as Receiver Brown says, that there is no question to arbitrate. The Texas Pacific had been boycotted to death financially, judicially, and every other way before the Knights tried their hand on it. The more extensive boycott of the Missouri Pacific system is beginning to tell on "organized labor" in other trades, through the closing of manufacturing

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establishments for want of raw material. This is the only cure for boycotting. It is desirable by all means to let it run its course, and prove its results by experiment on the largest scale. If every employer in the United States were under a boycott, every employee would also be under boycott. The sooner this ideal system of industry is reached, the sooner will the country be physicked of this terrible malady.

It is difficult to form any correct estimate of the actual extent of the present labor disturbances from the mass of despatches in the daily press, and *Bradstreet's* has done the public a service in collecting and summarizing the facts in the matter from all parts of the country. It finds that there are no serious troubles anywhere in the South, east of the Mississippi, or in the Northwest. In the bituminous coal regions of Pennsylvania, Maryland, Ohio, and elsewhere, there is a strike of unexampled proportions, involving 21,480 men; in the textile, boot and shoe, and metal industries of New England 9,960 employees have struck; in the strike on the Texas Pacific and the Gould Southwestern railways, and the allied difficulties in Texas cities, not less than 9,000 men are involved; and in the great nail strike west of the Alleghanies, about 4,000 men. As compared with a year and a quarter ago, when *Bradstreet's* made a similar review of the field, there are nearly as many boot and shoe employees on strike, more than twice as many textile workers, nearly three times as many miners, and, in all, at least 51,000 men in various branches of industry, against only 18,000 in December, 1884. At the latter date almost all the strikes were against a reduction of wages, while now they are generally for an increase of wages, often in connection with efforts to secure a recognition by employers of employees' organizations, and compliance with their demands in other matters than wages. On the other hand, fewer active boycotts are now being waged than were reported three months ago, when *Bradstreet's* made an exhaustive study of this phase of the labor question.

Railroad Commissioner Kernan's Arbitration Bill, if its provisions have been correctly reported, either goes too far or not far enough. A judgment of court ought not to be entered in any case where there is no power to enforce it. What we understand by a judgment is the last expression of the power of law. It is something which the State can and must carry into effect, whether it be against the property or the life of the individual to whom it relates. Suppose that the court enters a decree, in a certain case of dispute, that the employees are wrong and must go back to their work, and suppose that they refuse to do so. The court has no power to compel them to work. Is not this something like the present situation on the Texas Pacific Road? That road is now operated by the highest court in the United States, except the Supreme Court, and the employees have no more respect for its decrees than for those of Vice-President Hoxie in St. Louis. Nor is there any reason why they should have, so far as questions of the employment and discharge of workmen, or the rate of wages, or the hours of labor are concerned. Again, suppose that the judgment under Mr. Kernan's bill should be adverse to the railroad, and the railroad should not be willing or able to pay the wages or do the other thing required by the judgment. How is that to be managed? There is evidently only one way, and that is for the State to seize the road and operate it under the decree of the court. This would be taking private property without just compensation, which is forbidden by the constitutions of the State and of the United States.

It may be said in reply that a decree of the Court entered in pursuance of the proposed arbitration would probably be respected by the parties to the dispute. But probabilities have no place in decrees. We never say that a man will probably be hanged, unless pardoned by the Governor, after being sentenced to death. We never say that property decreed to be sold under judgment of court will probably be sold. Courts are established to create certainties, not probabilities. All the moral force that the proposed arbitration can carry, it must derive from the arbitrators and the publicity of their proceedings, and not from the entering of the form of a decree in another tribunal. It is not a helpful step toward the solution of existing social problems to introduce an element of uncertainty into the final proceedings of the judiciary. Mr. Kernan's bill ought either to leave the courts out altogether, or arm them with powers to carry their decrees into effect in spite of all imaginable opposition.

The Constitution devolves upon the Vice-President the powers and duties of the Executive office in case of the President's "inability" to discharge them, as well as in case of his removal from office, death, or resignation. No provision, however, is made for securing the proper representation of a State in the Senate in case the Senator fails to discharge his trust, save what is found in the clause that "if vacancies happen, by resignation or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies." Since the present session of Congress opened more than three months ago, Senator Jones, of Florida, has not once been in his seat, or even in the capital, having persistently remained in a Western city. With only half her proper representation in the Senate, Florida begins to feel as though the matter must be treated seriously. The Jacksonville *Times-Union*, the leading newspaper of the State, says seriously that "if Senator Jones will neither take his seat in the Senate nor explain his absence, Governor Perry should take some steps toward securing Florida her constitutional representation in Congress." It is not quite clear what steps Governor Perry can take, as it has not been usual to regard a Senator's absence from Washington as producing a "vacancy," but we have little doubt that Senator Evarts might help him out by suggesting some feasible way of getting rid of Mr. Jones under the "general welfare" clause of the Constitution.

Absence, however, may prove the greatest service which a member of the national Legislature can render the nation. The Senate Committee on Commerce consists of thirteen members. Twelve of them are in Washington, attending to their duties at the Capitol. Six of them favor the Eads ship-railway job; the other six oppose it. Mr. Jones, of Florida, is the thirteenth man, who has the casting vote. He is supposed to favor the job, and if he were in Washington, the bill would be reported to the Senate with the recommendation that it pass. But Mr. Jones has been in Detroit for months past, and apparently means to remain there for months to come. In his seat the Florida Senator never did much for his country; by his absence, which thus blocks the Eads raid on the Treasury, he is doing a great public service which his home critics ought not to overlook.

There is everything to commend in Senator Ingalls's proposition to substitute the 30th of April for the 4th of March as the day for inaugurating Presidents. The 4th of March limit shortens the second session of each Congress so that the work is of necessity done hurriedly and carelessly, while there would be ample time for orderly proceedings if the session lasted through April. The 4th of March even in Washington is apt to be a raw and disagreeable day, which slays a host of victims to pneumonia and other diseases caused by exposure, while the 30th of April is the most cheery time of the whole year at the capital. The change would simply be a reversion to the date of the original inauguration of Washington, and there would be a sentimental fitness in celebrating the hundredth anniversary of that event in 1889, as Mr. Ingalls proposes. The suggested amendment to the Constitution ought to be adopted.

The most striking feature of the testimony taken by the telephone investigation thus far is the statement made by Rogers, junior, as to the conversation which Mr. Casey Young had with the Attorney-General concerning the bringing of a suit to cancel the Bell patent on the ground of fraud. According to young Rogers, Mr. Garland said to Casey Young that he would have Solicitor-General Goode bring the suit to cancel the patent, as it would look better for the Solicitor-General to do it than for him to do it himself. Rogers, senior, is said to have been the only witness to this statement of Casey Young. If this allegation can be sustained, the statement of Mr. Garland to Mr. Young is at variance with the declarations of the Attorney-General since the agitation of this question began. But it should not be overlooked that Rogers, senior, is a very unbalanced character, and that even he has not yet been examined or cross-examined as a witness. The testimony of Mr. Pulitzer signifies merely that he considered the contents of the Rogers album a promising sensation, which would be likely to sell a good many copies of the *World*. This is what all newspaper men understood in the beginning. Some Democratic politicians have taken the serious view that since Mr. Pulitzer is a Democratic Congressman, he must have been moved by private malice in making the publication rather than by the expected sale of newspapers

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Here is what we think proper to require in case of any harm done to Americans in China. We quote from the *London and China Telegraph* of March 1:

"With reference to the outrage upon the members of the American Methodist Mission committed December 30, we learn by this mail that Mr. Smithers, the Acting United States Consul-General, having consulted the British and American Admirals, H. M. S. *Wanderer*, in the absence of an American man-of-war, was ordered to Chinkiang, and was followed by American man-of-war *Marion*. As soon as the Taoutai of Chinkiang became aware that men-of-war were going to his port he came to the conclusion that he had better punish the rioters. The ringleaders were arrested and cangued [pilloried in a heavy wooden collar] in front of the United States Consulate. Besides this they were each sentenced to receive 300 blows."

This account of the manner in which any Chinese ill-treatment of American residents in China is handled—on both sides—may be commended to the careful attention of Pacific Slope anti-Chinese agitators and legislators.

The discovery that a New York Alderman has for years been a regular receiver of stolen goods—an accomplice, in fact, of a notorious gang of thieves—appears to create a great deal of surprise in the public mind, but we do not see why it should. In 1884 and again last year the *Evening Post* published a "Voters' Directory," setting forth precisely the kind of men who were running for Aldermen. Thus it showed in November last that of the 57 candidates for Aldermen, no less than 19 were liquor-dealers and seven others had no reputable occupation. Out of the 57 there was only one of whom it could speak with commendation, and that was Mr. Van Rensselaer, who had stood almost alone against corrupt jobs in the former Board, and who occupies a similar lonesome position in the present Board. After the election we called attention to the fact that seven of the Aldermen elected were liquor-dealers, and that in the whole twenty-four members there were at most no more than three who could be counted upon to legislate in the interests of the city. The vote on the Cable Railway franchise showed this to be an accurate estimate. It is absurd to expect a Board made up of liquor-dealers and political adventurers, many of whom are professional gamblers, to act like honest men, and worse than absurd to keep such a Board in existence.

The members of the Baptist Social Union, after dinner at Delmonico's last week, discussed "The Sunday Question and the Saturday Half-Holiday." It seems odd that opinion should have been about equally divided for and against the Saturday half-holiday, considering that the Union was of one mind in favor of keeping all the museums and art galleries for ever closed on Sundays. One gentleman said: "A good deal of sympathy was wasted on the men who worked with their hands eight or ten hours a day. The proper subjects for sympathy were the professional men, who labored ten, twelve, and fourteen hours a day with their brains." There is much truth in this statement, but its bearing on the question of opening the museums, etc., on Sundays is directly against the argument of the speaker. Does he class professional men among those who cannot profit by museums of art or natural history? and, if not, how does he fancy that men who work from ten to fourteen hours a day are to make any use of places which are closed on evenings and Sundays? The reasoning is all the other way. It is a truth that a great many professional men in New York have never even entered, and under present regulations never can enter, public institutions in the use of which they are by education and disposition peculiarly fitted to gain not only intellectual pleasure, but also knowledge which in many cases would be of direct assistance in their daily work.

The loss of the great steamship *Oregon*, in sight of land, admonishes us that notwithstanding the great strides made in naval architecture and in the art of navigation in the last fifty years, we are very far from the line of safety in case a steamer is struck amidships by any floating thing having sufficient momentum to knock a hole in her side below the water line. Here, it seems, water-tight compartments are not effectual to prevent sinking, although they may delay it sufficiently, as in the case of the *Oregon*, to insure the transfer of passengers and crew to other vessels if there are any within reach. It was most fortunate, if there was to be a collision of this kind, that it occurred near the entrance to a great port, the converging point of hundreds of craft of all kinds, where any steamer which could keep afloat eight hours was almost certain of finding help. The immunity of the Cunard Line in this instance was due to good luck. The company can still boast that they have never lost a passenger on their transatlantic route, although they did, not long ago, meet with an accident on their Mediterranean line, which was attended with some loss of life to passengers as well as crew. The Cunard Company has had a wonderful career, and one which the *Oregon's* loss will but slightly mar, although no one can read the story of this disaster without a shiver.

Mark Twain's rôle of iconoclast is familiar to everybody. In his performance of it as a writer he has broken up many images long revered or sacred, has brushed the bloom of romance from many cherished pictures, and destroyed many illusions. But in his later capacity of publisher, bringing the Pope of Rome into the American "subscription book" field, he has outdone all such performances of authorship. The figure of the Sovereign Pontiff and Vicar of Christ submitting his biography to Mark Twain's publishing house "as a commercial enterprise" surpasses the most audacious travesty of Mark Twain's books. As a stroke of "business" it is probably supreme in its way. The effect of it on the popular idea of the Holy Father will perhaps be unfortunate. Until now this latest addition to the list of Royal and Noble Authors, in his secluded and withdrawn state, could fairly be allowed on all hands to be the most impressive figure in Christendom; but the centre of infallibility "booming" the subscription book market with a life of himself "published in every style," including "elaborately bound and illustrated copies," though it make the unskilful laugh, cannot but make the judicious grieve.

The colonial fever is strong in Germany just now; and one result of it has been a flood of pamphlets and magazine articles on colonies. One of the most interesting contributions to the discussion, especially to us of the United States, is an article in the last number of the *Jahrbuch für Gesetzgebung*, in which Mr. C. Herzog discusses emigration from Germany to this country. Some of the facts which he brings out are very curious and striking. Thus he shows that the proportion of women and children to the total number of emigrants is distinctly larger among Germans than among emigrants from other countries. Of course, the proportion among emigrants of men in the prime of life is always greater than it is in population at large, but the discrepancy is least among the German emigrants. In the years 1879-83 there were 612 males and 388 females for every 1,000 emigrants from Europe to this country; but for every 1,000 German emigrants there were but 596 males, and as many as 404 females. And similarly the number of children (under fifteen) was, among emigrants from Europe in general, 230 for every 1,000; but among German emigrants it was 272 for every 1,000. The proportion of people in the vigor of life, between the ages of fifteen and forty, was 669 out of 1,000 among European emigrants; among German emigrants it was only 622 out of 1,000. All of which means that German emigration is more distinctly an emigration by families, a steady stream from the general mass of the population, while from other European countries there is more emigration of individual roving spirits. It is very curious, too, that within Germany emigration is much larger from those provinces where the land is cultivated in large farms and estates than it is in the provinces where peasant proprietorship is the rule.

The figures show that as yet the German emigrants make for the United States as much as ever, if not more than ever. A recent statement showed that in the years 1871-84 about 95½ per cent. of all emigrants from Germany went to the United States. For the earlier part of this period, the ten years 1871-80, the proportion had been only 93½ per cent.; so that in recent years there must have been an increased proportion going to this country. And the figures for individual years, so far as we have them, bring this out very clearly. In 1881, nearly 98 per cent. went to the United States; in 1882, about 97½ per cent.; in 1883, over 96 per cent. The truth is, that although the Germans have a strong sentimental attachment to their country, they cannot and will not sacrifice their individual welfare to the advancement of its prosperity and power. This country offers them a settled civilization, security of life and property, an improvement in material welfare; in face of these advantages they will not go to the Balkans or to Buenos Ayres for the sake of possibly retaining a closer connection with their native country. The attraction of free and democratic institutions may not be as strong now as it was twenty or thirty years ago, and yet it counts for a good deal. It certainly counts for a good deal as against one feature of German government, compulsory military service, which is undoubtedly the strongest direct cause of emigration.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 10, to TUESDAY, March 16, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND has vetoed the bill to quiet the titles of settlers on the Des Moines River lands in Iowa. He says: "I cannot but think that every possible question that can be raised, or at least that ought to be raised, in any suit relating to these lands, has been determined by the highest judicial authority in the land. And if any substantial point remains yet unsettled, I believe there is no difficulty in presenting it to the proper tribunal."

President Cleveland on Tuesday sent in the name of Mr. Trenholm, of South Carolina, one of the present Civil-Service Commissioners, to be Comptroller of the Currency in place of Mr. Cannon, resigned; that of Mr. John H. Oberly, of Illinois, now Superintendent of Indian Schools, to be the Democratic Civil-Service Commissioner in place of Mr. Trenholm; and that of Mr. Charles Lyman, who has been the Chief Examiner of the Civil Service Commission since its inauguration, to succeed Mr. Dorman B. Eaton, term expired. Neither Mr. Oberly nor Mr. Lyman knew he was going to be appointed, neither of them had made application for the office, and neither had any papers on file in his behalf. Friends of the President say that both the new Civil-Service Commissioners are his own selections. Mr. Oberly has long been a journalist, and has had experience in executive office. He was Chairman of the Democratic State Committee of Illinois in the Presidential campaign. Mr. Lyman has been identified with the cause of civil-service reform since the first Commission appointed by General Grant, and is an enthusiast on the subject, as well as a very practical man.

Senator Eustis, according to an authorized statement, in his recent conferences urged the President to withdraw the nomination of all unconfirmed appointees against whom adverse criticisms have been justly made. "The record," said Senator Eustis, "can be forestalled. The names of appointees as to whose fitness there is any doubt can be withdrawn. Every man whose presence in the Government is a source of criticism and suspicion can be eliminated. From the highest to the lowest, I would lop off every branch that threatened the health and vitality of the Democracy."

Senator Pugh replied to Senator Edmunds in the Senate on Wednesday. At the start he pointed out the important fact that the nomination of Burnett to succeed Duskin had lain in the Judiciary Committee for a month after it was received; in the meantime, on December 20, Duskin's term of office expired. One month later, when Duskin was no longer an incumbent of the office, the resolution calling for the papers in his case was passed. The fact that Duskin's term had expired was news to most of those who heard it. Mr. Pugh also read a letter, signed by Mr. Thurman, which was read by Mr. Edmunds as an important precedent, calling for papers bearing on the removal of Judge Shaffer of the Territory of Utah, and said that in the provision conferring the power of removal on the President there was an express exception of judges of the United States; these could be removed only by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. The question was whether Territorial judges were embraced in that language. The Senator from Vermont knew that that question was an open one before the Committee of which he is Chairman.

In his argument on the President's refusal of papers to the Senate, Mr. Kenna (Dem., W. Va.) cited the confirmation of R. S. Dement to be Surveyor-General of Utah, by the aid of Republican votes and in the face of an adverse report by the Public Lands Committee, as a proof of the insincerity of the Republican profession of a desire to guard the interests of the service. The vote is said to have stood twenty-five for confirmation and twenty-two against. Of the majority seven Republicans are reported as voting for Dement, viz.: Stanford of California, Manderson of Nebraska, Sewell of New Jersey, Mitchell of Oregon, Logan of Illinois, Hoar of Massachusetts, and McMillan of Minnesota. Colonel Morrison says of Dement: "He is totally unfit for the duties of the office. I supposed, of course, that the Democratic Senators knew the services that he rendered General Logan in his recent contest for the United States Senate. I regard the confirmation of Dement as a reward for his treachery to me at Springfield."

The United States Senate on Tuesday passed the House bill increasing the pensions of soldiers' widows and dependent relatives from $8 to $12 per month. The bill now goes to the President.

An adverse report upon the Bennett bill to repeal the Civil-Service Law was made on Wednesday to the House. Mr. Stone (Dem., Mo.) will make a minority report. The opponents of that measure are, however, confident of a favorable report on the bill to repeal the law which was recently referred to the Committee on the Revision of the Laws.

The minority report of Mr. Rice, of Massachusetts, from the Committee on Foreign Affairs, against the Morrow Anti-Chinese Bill, which was presented to the House on Thursday morning, makes these points: That the bill is unconstitutional; that the provisions relating to the limitation of certificates and the twenty years' limitation are in violation of treaty; that the original restrictive act was in violation of the treaty, but that, inasmuch as it is working advantageously, there is no present necessity for a change; that statistics show that there are now 30,000 less Chinese in the country than there were when the restrictive act was passed, and that that act has six years more to run; that Chinese immigration is decreasing in volume; that there is no reason for the passage of an act which could only have the effect still further to irritate the Chinese Government, and that it is a wiser policy to let well enough alone; that there will be time enough to pass another bill, if it shall be deemed necessary, when the present act shall terminate; that, in the meantime, everything that is necessary to do can be accomplished by amicable arrangement with the Chinese Government.

The House Committee on Foreign Affairs on Tuesday, by a vote of seven to six, postponed the consideration of the Morrow Chinese Bill, and will instead take up the President's message recommending the payment of indemnity to China for outrages perpetrated on Chinese subjects in this country. The Chairman (Mr. Belmont), who cast the deciding vote, declared himself opposed to the Morrow bill on the ground of its being a violation of treaty obligations.

The House Committee on Education on Friday morning voted to postpone the consideration of the Blair Educational Bill to the third Friday in April. This action is regarded as unfavorable to the bill. It will probably be smothered in Committee

The House Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads gave a hearing on Friday to a number of people who appeared to advocate the passage of the measures which have been introduced providing for the establishment of postal savings banks. Speeches were made by Assistant-Secretary Fairchild, President Gilman, Walter Howe, E. L. Godkin, and others.

The House Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads has decided to report adversely the bill to double the rate of postage on fourth-class matter or merchandise.

Mr. J. Harris Rogers testified before the committee investigating the Pan-Electric scandal in Washington on Friday. One of the most significant points brought out was that which related to bringing the Government suit last summer. Some time in the summer—probably in July—Casey Young came to his house and informed him and his father that a suit would be brought by the Government to annul the Bell patent. The witness said, "My father asked him if Garland had promised, and he replied, 'Yes, he has promised.' 'Then if he has promised he will do,' my father said. Colonel Young said that the Attorney-General felt some delicacy about ordering the suit himself, and that he would leave it with Mr. Goode or turn it over to Mr. Goode. My father then asked if Goode was all right, and Colonel Young replied in substance that Goode was our friend, and that he did not know but he would rather have Goode than Garland to attend to the matter."

In the New York Senate on Wednesday a high license bill was introduced fixing the liquor tax as follows: "In cities of over 500,000 inhabitants, hotels, bars, saloons, and restaurants, first class, $500 per annum; second class, $300; third class, $150. Where wines alone are sold, the taxes shall be respectively $150, $75, and $60. In cities of between 100,000 and 500,000 inhabitants the taxes shall be $300, $200, and $100, and for wine alone $100, $50, and $40. In cities of between 10,000 and 100,000 the taxes shall be $150, $100, and $75, and for only beer $30. For all other places the tax shall be $100 for beer, malt liquors, and wine, and $20 for malt liquors. The taxes shall be paid to the county treasurers and the Comptroller of New York city. No further license tax shall be required. The taxes shall be paid into the State to meet the interest on the debt, prison maintenance, and general State expenses. The act does not apply to shops where liquor is sold in sealed bottles not opened on the premises."

Governor Hill, of New York, on Wednesday nominated Dr. Charles Phelps for Health Officer of the Port of New York; for Quarantine Commissioners, Dr. John H. Douglas, Marshall B. Blake, and Charles S. Higgins.

A sensation was created in the Broadway Railway investigation in this city, on Friday, by an affidavit showing that Alderman Jaehne had been accused of receiving stolen goods and had paid $1,100 to settle the matter.

About $1,207,000 was realized by the sale of the late Mrs. Mary Jane Morgan's collection of paintings, etchings, engravings, books, and art objects.

The Missouri Pacific Road was able to move a freight train on Friday from St. Louis only by letting police officers act as engineer and fireman, the persons employed regularly in those positions refusing to act. All efforts to compromise the strike have so far failed.

The steamship *Oregon*, of the Cunard Line, from Liverpool, while about fifteen miles off the American shore near Fire Island, at 4:30 o'clock Sunday morning, was run into by an unknown schooner, which struck the steamship on the port side. A large rent was made in the *Oregon's* side, through which the water poured rapidly. The 896 persons on board were transferred in three hours to a schooner and pilot-boat and afterward to the steamer *Fulda*, which brought them to this city. The *Oregon* sank at 1 P. M. She was one of the finest steamers afloat and cost $1,250,000. Only 138 out of 598 sacks of mail matter on board were saved. The cargo was valuable and large. Nothing is known of the fate of the schooner which struck the *Oregon*.

The celebrated physician, Austin Flint, M. D., of this city, died of cerebral apoplexy on Saturday afternoon, at the age of seventy-four.

Michael Hahn, the only Republican Congressman from Louisiana, died suddenly in Washington on Monday, at the age of fifty-six. He was a strong Union man during the war, and was the first Governor of the free State of Louisiana, having been elected in 1864.

Prof. Edward Tuckerman, of Amherst College, died on Monday of Bright's disease He was graduated from Union College in 1837. He was a botanist of note, and made a special study of lichens, on which subject he was recognized as an authority.

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Capt. James I. Waddell, who commanded the famous Confederate cruiser *Shenandoah*, died in Annapolis, Md., on Monday, aged sixty-two.

Mrs. George Bancroft, wife of the historian, died in Washington on Monday.

FOREIGN.

It is reported that Mr. Gladstone decided against Mr. Giffen's plan for buying out the landlords, on the ground that, as the Irish land is mortgaged in England to an enormous extent, such a measure would benefit chiefly the English mortgagees, and be of little help to the Irish landlords.

The London *Observer* says that Mr. Gladstone's draft of a home-rule measure, submitted to the Cabinet on Saturday, deals exclusively with expropriation, for which a colossal sum (estimated at £200,000,000) will be required. The administration of the fund is to be intrusted to an Irish local body, the constitution of which is left blank in the draft, but which the Ministers were informed would be of the character of an Irish Parliament. The *Standard* on Monday morning said: "It is supposed that Mr. Gladstone's scheme for the government of Ireland proposes the establishment of a single-chamber Parliament at Dublin, and embodies the principle of minority representation. Ireland will continue to send members to Westminster, not in proportion to her population, but in proportion to her contribution to the imperial revenue. Under this scheme there would probably be thirty Irish members of Parliament. The police are to be disarmed, and are to be under the control of the Government at Dublin. Provision is made for the use of the imperial forces when needed for the security of life and property. The Government at Dublin will not have power to impose duties on British goods, to treat with foreign Powers, to employ the revenues of the country for the endowment of any religious body, or to pass measures impairing the validity of contracts."

All the London papers except the *News* oppose Mr. Gladstone's scheme. The *Times* says: "The addition of £200,000,000 to £220,000,000 to the national debt is the estimated cost to the British taxpayer of the luxury of permitting the author of the abortive land bills of 1870 and 1881 to carry out another of his interesting experiments. An annual burden of five or six millions sterling to be borne by ourselves, and transmitted to the unborn generations who will not have the satisfaction of listening to Mr. Gladstone's lucid expositions, will perhaps appear to some among us a rather high price even for so much honor. We do not believe that the people of this country will be imposed upon by the sham, if their proper leaders and teachers have the courage and manliness to do their duty."

The *Pall Mall Gazette* professes to have authority for saying that the statements of the *Times* and *Standard* that Mr. Gladstone's Irish expropriation scheme contemplates an outlay of £200,000,000 are ridiculous, and that the sum which Mr. Gladstone calculated necessary to buy out all the present landlords of Ireland is much nearer £100,000,000 than £200,000,000.

It was reported on Monday afternoon that at the Cabinet meeting on Saturday Mr. Trevelyan, Secretary for Scotland, and formerly Chief Secretary for Ireland, and Mr. Edward Heneage, Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, both tendered their resignations. Mr. Heneage has authorized a denial of this report. The reason alleged to have been given by both gentlemen for their action was their disinclination to support the Irish policy outlined at the meeting by Mr. Gladstone.

Despite all stories to the contrary, it was authoritatively announced on Tuesday that both Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, President of the Local Government Board, and Mr. Trevelyan, had actually placed their resignations in the hands of Mr. Gladstone. The Premier had, however, declined to accept the resignations outright. His answer to the tender of them was a most conciliatory one. He suggested to both gentlemen that they should defer final decision on the resignations until after a personal discussion of the question at issue between them and him. To this both Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Trevelyan have assented. It is now known that the subject of dispute between the Prime Minister and Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Trevelyan is Mr. Gladstone's Irish expropriation scheme. The exact sum which will be required to buy out all the land-owners of the country according to the Premier's plan is £120,000,000. The proposition to increase the public debt of Great Britain that much in order to purchase peace in Ireland is asserted by the Radical leaders in the Cabinet to be asking far too much for what will be obtained. Both Mr. Trevelyan and Mr. Chamberlain were in their usual places in the House of Commons on Tuesday afternoon.

Mr. Gladstone's scheme was elaborated with the assistance of Earl Spencer, Mr. Morley, and Sir Robert Hamilton, the permanent Under Secretary at Dublin Castle. It provides for compensation for the vested interests in Irish tenanted land in case the possessors of those interests desire to abandon their property on the establishment of a statutory Parliament in Dublin. Wherever a landlord accepts a State commutation of his interest a land tax is to be substituted for rent. The new Irish Government will depend chiefly upon this tax for its revenues.

Messrs. Chamberlain and Healy flatly deny the intrigues attributed to them by a provincial paper for the overthrow of Messrs. Gladstone and Parnell.

Mr. Joseph Cowen, M.P. for Newcastle, and the colleague of Mr. John Morley, writes to his newspaper: "It is said that Mr. Gladstone has changed his mind about an early dissolution. If the Lords reject one or other of the Irish bills, he will hold an autumn session and pass it a second time in the Commons, as was done with the Franchise and Redistribution Bills. If the Peers should throw out the measure a second time, it will be passed by the Commons a third time, and, if again rejected, dissolution will follow in the spring next year. The Prime Minister believes that the people want to be educated about home rule, and that a discussion in Parliament will have the effect of enlightening them." Mr. Cowen's relations with Mr. Gladstone add special significance to this statement.

Lord Charles Beresford (Conservative) moved in the House of Commons on Monday that in view of the large number of workingmen out of employment and the cheapness of labor, the present time is opportune to suspend the sinking fund in order to place the navy in a state of efficiency. The motion was defeated by a vote of 206 to 98.

Mr. Henry Labouchere, Radical, during Thursday's debate in the House of Commons on the Government's civil-service estimates, moved to reduce the grant for the maintenance of parks belonging to or used exclusively by royalty or members of the royal family. The motion was carried against the Government by a vote of 131 to 114. Parnellites and Radicals made the majority.

Mr. Parnell publicly urges members of the Nationalist party in Ulster to refrain from celebrating St. Patrick's Day by demonstrations, such as parades, likely to anger the Orangemen. In his circular advising this course the Irish leader says: "Do not irritate the Orangemen, however misguided you may deem them; this is of vital importance now."

The distress among the inhabitants along the western Irish coast is said to be terrible. Gunboats have been placed at the service of the Relief Agent.

Lord Rosebery, British Foreign Secretary, has advised a reduction of the army of occupation in Egypt by six regiments, the withdrawal of the British troops from Assuan and the Egyptian troops from Wady Halfa. In a skirmish near Suakim on Sunday between the British and the rebels, thirty of the latter were killed.

Before Mr. Justice Stephen, in London, on Thursday, a wealthy Tory farmer was prosecuted by the Government for committing felony in having voted three times at three different places in one Parliamentary borough. He had three qualifications. Had these been in different boroughs, the Government admitted his right, but opposed his right to vote three times for one candidate. The defence admitted the voting, but claimed entire absence of guilty intention. The jury found the prisoner guilty, but with no guilty intent whatever. Mr. Justice Stephen entirely agreed with the verdict, but said that the law must be upheld, and the prisoner had done what the law decided was felony. The Court had no option in passing sentence but to inflict imprisonment with hard labor. He did not wish to pass any such sentence, and the only way he could avoid it was by ordering the prisoner to enter into his own recognizances and come up and receive judgment when called upon. Probably, unless he offended again, he would never hear any more about it. The prisoner was then bound over and discharged.

Richard Belt, the London sculptor, was on Monday found guilty of a misdemeanor in having obtained money of Sir William Abdy by false pretences, and was sentenced to a year's imprisonment at hard labor.

Sir Charles Warren has been appointed Commissioner of the Metropolitan Police of London.

The Earl of Chichester is dead at the age of eighty-one. He was Lord-Lieutenant of Sussex, and took an active part in the management of many leading religious and charitable societies of the Church of England.

Viscount Dupplin, heir of the Earl of Kinnoull, died at Monte Carlo on Wednesday.

The French Government has decided to issue a loan of 1,000,000,000 francs to consolidate the 618,000,000 of six-year bonds now outstanding, and to redeem the floating debt.

The Bank of France has given 40,000 francs for the proposed Pasteur Institute. Baron Rothschild has given a like sum, and the Institute of France has given 30,000 francs.

Louise Michel announces that she will make a lecture tour in America.

Austria has decided to prohibit the teaching of Old Catholicism in any public school in the empire.

The Austrian Minister of War has issued instructions to all the commanders of corps in the Austro-Hungarian army to order the enforcement of the study of German among all the troops. The Count complains that the use of local dialects among the soldiers has greatly increased of late. The Czechs, meanwhile, are steadfast in adhering to their own language. It is also asserted that a movement has been organized in Russia to convert to the Greek Church the Catholic Czechs in the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

The Committee of the Reichstag to which was referred Prince Bismarck's Spirit Monopoly Bill, on Friday rejected the first two clauses of the measure. As these clauses contain the essence of the bill, the action of the Committee virtually defeats the measure.

The conference of representatives of the Powers which met at Constantinople to consider the Turco-Bulgarian treaty (which, among other things, creates Prince Alexander, of Bulgaria, ruler of Eastern Rumelia) has accepted the treaty in its entirety.

Twelve thousand Burmese rebels are reported about to march on Mandalay.

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COMPULSORY HIRING.

THERE are various plans on foot, some in the Legislature and some outside, for the settlement of disputes between workingmen and their employers by means of arbitration. But no scheme of this kind, however carefully considered, can be successful unless it is based on a clear understanding of what the rights of the parties who submit to arbitration are. That is to say, there can be no sound, lasting, and healthy settlement of the labor question which is not preceded by a plain definition of the position of the parties whom it affects. Thus far nothing of the kind seems to have been reached. Apparently a very large body of the workingmen all over the country seem to be possessed with the idea that they have a right to be hired by any employer whom they select for that purpose, at a rate of wages to be fixed by themselves or by the trades unions to which they belong. It may be said that this is an exaggeration—that all that the trades unions claim, at most, is the right of men to continue in the service of men who have already employed them. But this is a distinction without a difference. In the field of morals a right to be employed by any man you please flows logically from the right to be employed by a particular man who does not want your services. The right, if it exists, runs with the laborer. If A has a right to insist that B shall give him work at $2 a day heaving coal when B does not want him to heave coal for him on any terms whatever, A has a right also to impose himself on C, D, or E as a coal heaver.

In most of the strikes which occur nowadays this point is clearly brought out. The laborers of the Steam Heating Company, for instance, call on the company to make certain changes in its mode of doing business, as a condition of their continuing to work for it. The company refuses, and the laborers consequently leave its service. All is right thus far. Each side has exercised its liberty as a citizen. But the laborers do not go away and let the Steam Heating Company alone. They surround its premises in an angry way, as if the company were in possession of something which belonged to them, and they threaten those whom it takes in their places with serious bodily harm. They insist that they have a right to continue in the company's employment for an indefinite period, on terms fixed by themselves and without regard to their behavior. They do not concede to the company any right whatever of withdrawing from the relation or dispensing with their services, nor will they allow it to mention any fixed term of office for them. They are so sure of the justice of this arrangement, too, that they propose to assault anybody that interferes with it, and to damage the property of anybody who deals with the company and refuses to be a party to the quarrel.

Now, arbitration on a basis of this sort is impossible. It cannot succeed in any organized shape unless it is avowedly conducted between free agents—that is, unless the parties to it have perfectly equal rights: unless the Knights of Labor, for instance, openly acknowledge, and agree to live up to the acknowledgment, that the employer has the same right to dismiss that the employee has to leave, and that the laborer has no more right to hit or kick the capitalist, or damage his property for not giving him work, than the capitalist has to hit or kick the laborer for refusing to stay in his service. We trust, too, that employers of labor throughout the country, and all intelligent and peaceable men of every calling, whether employers of labor or not, will insist now on the abandonment of the monstrous theory, which the Knights of Labor are either putting forward or sanctioning, that one man has a right to be hired by another man whether the other man wants him or not. This sounds when one sees it in a paper so absurd as to be laughable; but such doctrine is not laughable when held by great bodies of the citizens of what is supposed to be a free country: it is dangerous. It merits the prompt and unfaltering resistance of every lover of his country and his kind. Nothing much more monstrous and oppressive was ever concocted in the Middle Ages to bolster up the power of feudal lords. All this "boycotting" which is going on in support of it is simply a disguised form of robbery, and should be met and stigmatized as such. Working by all sorts of methods to injure a man's business, or, in other words, to damage his property because he will not hire you, is no more moral or respectable than going to his safe and taking some of his money, and it is a pity and a shame that it is not as punishable and as easily punished. Everybody, no matter what his place or calling, who encourages it, or even submits to it, or connives at it in the case of his neighbors, is an accessory to a most odious offence against society and against his fellow-man. The moral law has not changed since the Knights of Labor were organized any more than the law of the land, and no change in the law of the land which does not take the moral law into account can possibly work anything but confusion.

Moreover, the doctrine of compulsory hiring is capable of indefinite extension without losing any of its force. It can easily be applied to the sale of any other commodity as well as labor. If I have the right to insist on another man's hiring me whether he wants me or not, and am entitled to kick and cuff him, and smash his machinery and furniture, and persuade his neighbors not to deal with him in case he refuses, why may I not do the same thing if he refuses to purchase goods of my manufacture? Why might a trades union not set up a producing cooperative shop and carry their goods round to people for sale, and hit them over the head, and break their windows, and hang round their door hissing and hooting, and threatening everybody who attempted to enter, in case of their refusal to buy? What can be said in defence or justification of the first of these performances which cannot be said in defence or justification of the second? Nothing that we know of.

The issue is a plain one. It must be met by the American people sooner or later. The present position of the Knights of Labor is an attempt to introduce terrorism and intimidation in their most odious forms into the everyday life of that community of all in the world from the success of which the workingman has most to expect. This is as good a time to meet it as will ever come.

THE TELEPHONE SUIT.

THE long delay which has attended the preparation of the bill of complaint of the Government against Bell, will surprise no one who has in mind the difficulties of the problem with which counsel have had to deal. It was quite evident that the original bill prepared by the Pan-Electric Company was never intended to come before the courts upon its merits, being gotten up merely to afford the Attorney-General an excuse for commencing suit. If the synopsis which first appeared in the Washington *Post* is, as would appear, a careful preparation by competent hands, the new bill is a much stronger document than the original one, and has avoided most of the absurdities and inconsistencies of the other. But the effect of this added strength is to bring out in a clearer light than ever the absence of all sound reason for commencing the suit.

We have no desire to anticipate in any way the final verdict of the court. When we consider how many informalities may invalidate a patent, how the extreme freedom with which our Government issues patents is set off by laws giving every possible advantage to parties contesting them, how numerous the competitors, and how great the reward of overthrowing the Bell patent, we cannot but regard the unbroken series of decisions in its favor as a marvel. It would be hazardous to claim that no loophole in the document and no invalidating circumstances in its issue could be brought to light by the searching inquiry now to be instituted. The point we wish to bring to the attention of our readers is, that the bill makes a number of statements which, if true, show that the action taken by the Government is quite unjustifiable, and the expense caused by it a flagrant waste of the public money.

For example, it is averred that Bell purposely framed his application and claim in general and ambiguous terms in order to cover both antecedent and future inventions, and to deceive and mislead the examiners of the Patent-office and the public. Now, if Bell did this, and if it was a fraud, then the fraud was practised on no other person than Bell himself. For the statutes of the United States clearly provide that if a patentee does this, any citizen of the United States may use the invention at his pleasure; and if Bell is so imprudent as to bring suit against him on his patent, the citizen can not only secure a verdict, but make Bell pay the costs of the suit. What excuse, then, can the Government have for going into court with such a plea? The bill also states that on March 10, 1876, Bell obtained a patent for a telephone in which the transmission of speech was obtained by a liquid transmitter or water telephone described in Gray's caveat, which had been filed three weeks before. Now, Gray's caveat has been before the courts and the public for many years, as well as Bell's patent. A patent by Bell for anything contained in Gray's caveat is not worth the paper it is printed upon. What possible excuse, then, has the Government for going to such expense in annulling the patent? The proceedings are very much as if the Government should be asked to expend several thousand dollars in erecting machinery to re-

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move an objectionable building, on the motion of parties who averred that the building was only a fog-bank which would be carried away by the first breeze.

Our readers will be interested in knowing what the complainant now says about the state of Bell's knowledge of telephonic transmission during the critical period under consideration. We have alluded to the claim of the Pan-Electric Company, that Bell well knew his apparatus to be a speaking telephone, but cunningly and wrongfully withheld that knowledge from the examiner of the Patent-office. We have also discussed the claim of another party that he did not discover his apparatus to be a speaking telephone until some time later. On this critical point we find that the Government counsel sweep away both hypotheses by claiming that the apparatus was not a telephone at all, and "lacked in description or drawings any machine then, or at any time, capable of transmitting speech." Here again we find a remarkable silence on the burning question why the Government should spend money in invalidating a patent for such a cumbrous and worthless piece of apparatus. It is curious to see the same fallacy coming in from beginning to end of the paper. It again calls the attention of the court to what has been considered the great fact justifying the suit, namely, that only the Government and not a private citizen can bring suit to repeal a patent. It ignores in the most extraordinary way the fact that the laws make ample provision against any necessity for such repeal, by legislation which protects every person against a suit for infringing a patent which there is any grounds for repealing.

We have looked in vain through the document for any allusion to the supposed fraudulent alteration of Bell's application by the addition of new matter. As this fraudulent proceeding is one which the Patent-office and its clients have been engaged in every week of its existence, we apprehend that the proper formulation of the complaint in this case must have caused some embarrassment to counsel, and that the matter was dropped in consequence.

THE NAVAL OBSERVATORY.

With the publication of each new document on the subject, it becomes more and more apparent that the reasons advanced in favor of the removal of the Naval Observatory are balanced by evidence that an improved organization is more urgent than a removal. It therefore provokes no small degree of surprise that the advocates of its removal continue to press the matter. To expect Congress to make bounteous provision for the purpose on such a showing is, to say the least, somewhat vain.

Executive Document 67, embodying a letter from the Secretary of the Navy to the President of the Senate, forms a new contribution to the literature of a subject already threadbare, and one in which many of the leading men of science of the country long ago lost all interest. Fourteen pages of this document are occupied with the report of a committee of seven members of the National Academy of Sciences, a minority of whom are practical astronomers; but the Committee unanimously concur in the conclusion (1) that it is advisable to proceed promptly with the erection of a new observatory upon the site purchased in 1880 for this purpose; (2) that it should be under civilian administration, and called the National Observatory of the United States, (3) that all except three of the instruments of the present Naval Observatory, together with a good part of its library, should be transferred to the Naval Academy, Annapolis, with such members of the staff as may be required to operate them, while what is left (library, instruments, and officers) is to become the nucleus of a new national observatory to be built in Georgetown or West Washington.

Leaving out of consideration here, what is probably true, that the proposed site possesses only meagre advantages over the present one, it is to be noted that the present Observatory buildings are somewhat dilapidated and unsuitable for observatory use; that they are located in a spot which, in the opinion of many, has been notably malarious and may perhaps continue so; that the observers on night duty have no houses near their instruments, as they ought to have; and that, from the proximity of the Potomac River, fogs and vapors sometimes exercise a baleful influence upon the astronomical work. The Committee think the sanitary question the most serious one, but are compelled to state that, while their evidence is mainly drawn from documents prepared eight years ago, the matter has since assumed a different aspect, as the flats or marshes about the Observatory are now in process of being rapidly filled up; so that it is the belief of some of the medical men of Washington that, with their reclamation, the deleterious influences of which they have been the cause will cease to be exerted. As authorities on the subject are at variance, and it would at the most be a matter of only a few years when a positive conclusion might be reached, a prudent conservatism would say that it is advisable to wait and see. As for the obstruction to observation by fogs, the Committee consider it not a matter of gravity; while the dilapidated state of the building may, they say, be a reason for repairing, or, if necessary, reconstructing it, but it is not in itself a reason for a change of site.

The Committee contribute an elaborate and very just estimate of the astronomical work of the Observatory; and, in reply to the question whether its superintendent should be a line officer of the navy or a practical astronomer, they find that the views of Professor Newcomb, expressed in 1877, are so perfectly their own that they have no hesitation in adopting his letter entire. His view is, of course, that the Observatory should have a scientific head, (1) because of the generally recognized necessity that every office should, as far as practicable, be under a head professionally acquainted with its routine of business; (2) because the Observatory should be administered with well-defined objects in view; and (3) because individual astronomers of talent are more secure in the recognition of their scientific claims under a head professionally interested in the advancement of science. Also, "the proper essential business of a State Observatory" is defined by the Committee in terms which admit of no doubt, and which the future management of the Observatory, whatever it may turn out to be, will do well to keep continually in mind. Examining the publications of the Observatory itself, the Committee do not hesitate to announce their detection of many features which are far from satisfactory, while the volumes themselves show sufficiently the absence of any preconceived plan directing the operations of the institution. Recognizing the truth of this charge, the Committee seem to be justified in recommending the practical dismemberment of the present Observatory, in the hope, it may be, of getting something different or better in the new and disconnected organization which they propose in its stead.

Though not himself a member of the Committee, but as a member of the Academy, the views of Professor Holden, an astronomer of mature experience at the Naval Observatory itself and subsequently at the Washburn Observatory, Wisconsin, and now Director of the Lick Observatory, are worthy of note here, especially as he appears to take the broadest view of the question, and the Committee append his letters to their own report. He expresses himself unqualifiedly "not in favor of a change of its site now or at any time, under the present condition of the improvements to the harbor of Washington"; and subsequently, in response to a letter from the Chairman of the Committee, he says: "I am decidedly of the opinion that this change [of site] is unnecessary and unwise." At the same time he advocates the very common-sense plan of selling the new sites, and using the funds to extend the grounds about the present Observatory, thus affording the needed room for observers' quarters. Furthermore, Professor Holden does not believe that the architect's plan of the proposed new observatory would "receive the unqualified approval of competent astronomers. . . . The best modern observatories, Potsdam, Strassburg, Mount Hamilton, and others, are built on different, and, I think, better principles." The Committee do not seem to attach the importance they should to Professor Holden's testimony on the subject of the malariousness of the present site. He lived in the immediate vicinity of the Observatory for eight years, and says: "None of my family were ever ill from malaria, and I myself had only two or three very slight attacks." Professor Newcomb also, on duty at the Observatory for sixteen years, and engaged in night-service the greater part of this time, though residing in a remote part of the city, in his letter to the Committee says: "I cannot say that I personally suffered greatly in health from the cause alluded to. I had occasional malarial attacks, but they were no worse than before my connection with the Observatory." Professor Newcomb disposes of the fog business by simply directing attention to the fact that nobody has ever made simultaneous observations at the new site, only a short distance from the present one, to see whether fogs at the latter may not cover the former too.

On the whole, the evidence now in must quite suffice to show that the chief reason why the Government is expected to expend half to three-quarters of a million dollars in building a new observatory is because a half-dozen

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or so of the observers at the old one are occasionally ill with malaria—and that, too, without any attempt to investigate the very pertinent question whether these same observers would not be just as ill if they stayed at home all the time.

THE IRISH LANDLORDS.

THE probabilities seem to be at present that when Mr. Gladstone produces his scheme of Irish home rule to the House of Commons, nearly all opposition to it will have vanished. The solid and very effective support which the Irish have been giving to the Radicals in their assaults on what used to be called the "Throne and Altar," is frightening not only the Tories but the Whigs into acquiescence in almost anything that will take the Home Rulers away from Westminster. In fact, it seems now doubtful whether even the House of Lords will make their customary one attempt to stem the tide.

Nothing very definite seems to be known about Mr. Gladstone's plan, but it is almost certain that he will so combine the expropriation of the landlords with the restoration of the Irish Parliament that they will have to be swallowed together in one dose. In other words, when "Grattan's Parliament" is set up again, the class to which Grattan belonged, and which in Grattan's day carried on the Government of Ireland, will have virtually disappeared. Here and there an Irish landlord may survive the general wreck, but the main body will be known no more in politics or society. There are but very few who have managed to pass through the last ten years without becoming fatally embarrassed. Most of the estates have either been mortgaged, or saddled with settlements and annuities at valuations which even the good old times of high rentals did not warrant. These rentals have been reduced by the operation of the Land Acts on an average 25 per cent. The great fall in agricultural produce within the last two years has carried them still lower, or rather has left the tenants unable to pay even the reduced rate.

An Irish estate used to sell, in the days before the land agitation, for about twenty times the amount of the annual rental, or "twenty years' purchase," as it was called. But the rental no longer affords a basis for valuation. Not only has the amount of the rental become very uncertain, but the willingness of the tenant to pay any rent at all has seriously diminished. It is only very resolute men who now attempt to collect rents by force. Collecting them by force means calling on the police and the soldiers to assist the sheriff in seizing and selling the stock or evicting the tenant. It is all but certain that under the present Ministry this aid will be furnished very charily, which means that evictions and seizures for rent will be practically brought to an end. With such drastic legislation pending as Mr. Gladstone is said to be preparing, probably few landlords will feel disposed to bother themselves about arrears.

Most of the money paid for expropriation, however, will go to the mortgagees, who are generally English insurance and other corporations. The landlords themselves will get very little. The main body of them will be thrown on the world in very bad times. There is very great poverty among them already, but they have house-room, some little credit, and the produce of their farms. These will now also be lost, and they will literally have to seek their fortunes over again in very bad times. There will be something very dramatic in this ending to the great attempt made by England in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries to Anglicize Ireland. It has proved a prodigious failure. The Scotch settlement in Ulster was greatly reduced toward the close of the last century by the exactions of the landlords, which caused a large emigration to America and furnished some of their stoutest soldiers to the Revolutionary armies. There is no doubt, too, that the Cromwellian soldiery, who settled in considerable numbers on the forfeited lands in the midland and eastern counties, rapidly abandoned their faith, forgot their origin, and became part and parcel of the Celtic population. This Cromwellian element is very strong on the rich lands of Tipperary, and it showed itself in the stern and implacable hostility to the landlords for which that county was remarkable fifty years ago. It was there that assassination as a mode of reducing rents first excited serious attention in England. The Tipperary peasantry literally "shot their rents down," as some one humorously said, long before resistance had become really ferocious in other parts of the country; and the county during the last thirty or forty years has been comparatively peaceful. Finally, to crown all, in spite of the constant support and protection of the English Government, or perhaps we should say in consequence of them, the proprietors of the soil, after an experiment of 200 years, have to abandon it bankrupt and despairing. There is no more striking illustration in modern history of the powerlessness of force against a tenacious moral resistance.

But for English protection, the Irish land question would have been settled probably early in the eighteenth century. Left to their own resources, the landlords would have come to terms in some way with the tillers of the soil. Either they would have become blended with the native population, as the earlier Norman settlers were, or would have established friendly and sympathetic relations with them, or, in other words, would have come to regard them as their countrymen, and share their hopes and ideals in spite of the barrier of religion. This result would probably have come about by this time, had the Irish Parliament continued to exist and helped to keep the gentry in Ireland, and to cherish among them the feeling of Irish nationality. But reliance on the British troops and the British Treasury to pull them through all scrapes perpetuated the separation of feeling between the two classes, and kept alive the hard, cold, alien seventeenth-century temper of the dominant class toward the peasantry; and this has finally brought their ruin. Had they had to stand alone, either a revolution like that in France would have swept them away generations ago, or they would have avoided it by concessions which would have put them in the position of national leaders in a country where leadership has always been easy. But they kicked against the pricks, and set their teeth, and tried to remain Englishmen when they should have become Irishmen, in spite of a hundred warnings, until the democratic tide rose in England to sweep them away.

They were in their day, however, it must be admitted, a body not without merit. They furnished England with some of her greatest soldiers and administrators, and have served her well in every quarter of the globe. But they kept singularly apart from the moral and intellectual currents of later days Probably no educated class of later days has been less touched by philanthropic movements or sympathies, or has concerned itself less about the condition of the poor, or has remained more persistently Tory and reactionary in its politics than the Irish landlords.

LA BOURBOULE AND ITS WATERS.

ONE cannot examine the history of the thermal waters of central France without feeling anew the complexity of modern rivalries and the novelty of the forms in which they clash. That of La Bourboule in Auvergne, aside from its therapeutic and its geological interest, is a story of applied science and of business rivalry which is paralleled only, but only in some points, by that of certain oil-wells in our own petroleum districts. An account of the development of these mineral springs should precede a description of their curative virtues.

La Bourboule, until recently an insignificant and torpid village, now a thriving town, is situated in the centre of the springs of Auvergne, the richest, most varied, and most abundant group of mineral waters in the known world. They number about six hundred separate springs; and in the department of the Puy-de-Dôme alone, Dr. Petit of Royat, in his excellent chart of mineral waters (1878), indicates two hundred and seventy. Those of La Bourboule are the most important of known arsenical waters. Their history is modern, and it does not begin, like that of Mont-Dore, Royat, Plombières, Luxeuil, Aix, Vichy, and a score of other French mineral springs, with a Roman inhabitation and bath-installation. Duclos, in his 'Observations sur les eaux minérales de plusieurs provinces de France' (Paris, 1675), makes the first mention of La Bourboule as a mineral spring, remarking that the solid constituents of the waters amounted to 1-170 of their weight, and that these constituents could be partly dissolved in vinegar, being "semblable au sel commun." Their chemistry was not understood until long after this time; but mention of the waters and of their special virtues is not infrequent. Legrand d'Aussy, among others, in his 'Voyage dans l'Auvergne,' remarks the anomaly of a cold and a hot spring pouring from the same rock at a distance of but four feet from each other. At this time (1787) the place, though little known, already had, as he tells us, its establishment on a small scale, and cures were wrought here in cases for which even the waters of Mont-Dore were inefficacious. "In spite of all these miracles," he adds, "La Bourboule remains unknown, while Mont-Dore is famous. What a book could be made on the capriciousness of fame! Whoever may write it will not fail to instance the neglect of La Bourboule among the thousand and one illustrative facts which he will find ready to hand." Fame, as we shall see, came in course of time. The curative results obtained at La Bourboule were remarkable, and medical men had long recognized them as having much scientific interest. But it was not until 1854 that the waters were analyzed. Thénard then showed

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that they were rich in arsenic beyond all other waters known; their medicinal reputation as an energetic blood restorer and alterant was fully justified in the laboratory.

But the small amount of water afforded by the springs was a serious hindrance to the development of the station: it did not exceed nine gallons per minute, a quantity entirely insufficient for an establishment. The attention of geologists was drawn to the question of the origin of the springs and to the possible augmentation of the water supply; and it was very thoroughly discussed by Poulet-Scrope, among others, in his admirable work on the geology of central France. In Auvergne, as in that other volcanic country, Bohemia, with its invaluable mineral waters, the springs are to be sought in the lowest parts of deep valleys and in the most disturbed and tormented ground. Formerly far more numerous than now, they are the last and departing signs of the inward eruptive forces of these regions. The central part of La Bourboule valley is filled with trachyte, erupted matter, tufa, etc., as a trough with so much mud or water. On either side this is walled in by abrupt granitic formations, dipping on the north toward the valley at an angle of forty-seven degrees. From this containing wall of granite, and from a point not far below its line of contact with the contained masses of trachyte, flowed the precious but insufficient stream of mineral lymph.

How, then, might the scanty flow of the springs be increased? Was the enclosing granite wall, as seemed likely from the regularity of its face, really a geologic fault? In that case, the water was brought to the surface by its means; and it would only be necessary to strike the inclined wall with a borer to liberate a layer of mineral water. But at what depth did the water actually leave the granite for the trachyte, thence to force its way to the surface? This it was impossible to tell. But it was finally decided, after careful study of the geologic situation, to sink in the tufa a shaft which should meet the granite at from sixty to eighty metres below the surface. It was the beginning of the battle of the wells, which, as we shall see, was to have the deepest interest, not only for the geologist, but for every inhabitant of the little French village, for years to come, and for many thousands of strangers besides.

The springs had been owned since the year 1828 by a family named Choussy. The only patients as yet were a few peasants from time to time; even as late as 1857 there were but 270 annual visitors to La Bourboule. But the time of transformation had now arrived. In 1864 M. Mabru began to sink a shaft on his own ground, at a short distance from the drowsy little establishment of the Choussys. Never was a well dug so slowly, even in a slow provincial village of France; but by January, 1867, it had reached the depth of thirty metres, and, to the great encouragement of M. Mabru, had already dried up three or four of the old springs. It yielded eleven gallons per minute, at a temperature of 35° C. (95° Fahr.), and in a few months this flow was doubled. An establishment was at once begun, and patients presented themselves in increased number.

Another rival now appeared in the person of M. Sédaiges. He leased the unoccupied lands of the valley (*terrains communaux*) for a term of fifty years, and sank another well; it yielded twenty-two gallons per minute. The Choussys saw that their subterranean reservoir was tapped, and that their only salvation lay in boring. Their well No. 1 took two years to sink; it was forty-eight metres deep, and it was afterwards deepened to seventy-eight metres; it delivered thirty-five gallons of arsenical water per minute, at a temperature of 54° C. (129° Fahr.). Best of all, it cut down M. Mabru's well to a flow of four gallons per minute; the rest of the wells it dried up entirely.

M. Perrière was incited to new exertions by the result, and in 1869 he deepened his well to fifty-three metres; he struck a deeper source, procured more water, and seriously diminished the yield of the Choussy well. During the following year he dug his well No. 2, but as he went down only thirty-three metres, the water delivered was weak in mineral constituents. It was now becoming evident that the deepest digger had the best chance. What might not be expected from further borings? Capital began to seek investment in the springs; the excitement deepened with each new boring. Many cures were made, and patients poured in upon the little village. New rivals appeared in the form of a company, which dug the "Fenestre" wells Nos. 1 and 2 in 1872 and 1873; and two years later the present company was incorporated, consolidating all the wells, except the stout M. Choussy's, under one management.

But M. Choussy was not to be beaten at digging. He returned unshaken to the field, and, at a point only four metres distant from the rival Perrière spring, he sunk his shaft No. 2. It penetrated to a depth of 75.73 metres, and the precious mineral waters poured forth with impartial abundance; but unhappily the rival spring continued to flow. And now M. Choussy had a brilliant idea: it was to bring the steam pump to bear upon his enemies. The principle of his procedure was not unanticipated. There is, or is reported to be, in Boston, a small restaurant, frequented mainly by patrons who do not dine every day in the week, and where a hard and unfeeling management demands prepayment for every dish consumed. A waiter, equipped with a large wooden syringe, is stationed behind each consumer of bean soup, and requires its price. If the color of silver or copper does not instantly appear, the entire contents of the soup-plate are reclaimed, at one stroke, by the wooden pump. It may be doubted whether M. Choussy was acquainted with this effective device; but the principle of it must have been familiar to him, for he showed no less intelligence in the treatment of the rival spring and the alimentation of his own. His boring was the deepest yet made; he placed a powerful steam pump at the mouth of his new well, and he had the grim satisfaction of perceiving, at the first stroke of the engine, that Perrière No. 2 had entirely ceased to flow.

This was in 1876. But the company, inscribing *semper inferior* upon their drills, deepened the Perrière well to seventy-five metres, and fitted it with a pump even more formidable than that of the ingenious M. Choussy. When, therefore, amid great excitement, it was set to work, he in turn saw his fortunes escaping in a small iron tube.

For several seasons the situation at La Bourboule had been an extraordinary one. The uncertainty as to the development of the rival establishments and of their springs affected the whole community—patients, proprietors, and the general public. The establishments, though repeatedly enlarged, could not contain the patients who poured in from every part of Europe. Now Dr. Choussy's, now the company's star was in the ascendant; yet each establishment in turn experienced water-starvation, and during whole seasons hundreds of invalids went to bed at night without any assurance that they could bathe or drink the next morning. The fortunes of either establishment depended upon the penetration of a still lower source. More than this, the integrity of the mineral waters, and consequently the "hydriatric fortunes" of La Bourboule itself, so geologists gave warning, depended upon the depth of the latest well, the efficiency of the strongest pump. Everything was perilled by this ravenous boring. If the disposition of the water-bearing substrata was so delicate as to be greatly disturbed by a single well, what mischance might not be feared from future borings? It was feared that some dilution, convection, admixture, or other injury to the precious waters might be wrought any day as the result of all these intrusions into the subterranean laboratory. Already the Perrière well No. 2 flowed weak. What if the springs should be destroyed entirely?

Meanwhile the supremacy passed rapidly from one establishment to another. The scientific question little interested the community, which found its profit in these rival interests. But the whole town was torn by the controversy, and to this day its feuds are not fairly laid, nor are all the losses that resulted from them made good. But for the greater part of the community, as for landed proprietors, the builders, the hotel-keepers, the physicians, this development was the source of fortune. The small land-owners sold their gardens and pastures at higher prices than had ever been known in the Puy-de-Dôme. Fine hotels arose; the incomplete establishments were urged toward completion; trade improved, and the population of La Bourboule grew. The little town was given over to prosperity; and yet there was no little anxiety as to its continuance, unless the hazardous borings could be checked. The whole prosperity of the place might run off, any day, through a three-inch pipe.

Such was the extraordinary situation when, in 1878, the irrepressible Dr. Choussy girded up his loins once more and returned to the field with new supplies of men, money, and boring tools. He deepened his well to the depth of eighty-four metres: La Bourboule hung upon the result. It was an anxious day for the company and for its patients when his great pump began to play. Would victory veer again to the original proprietor? The "hydriatric world" looked on breathless. But the precious water refused to answer to this last appeal. Waters, indeed, were reached, but the superiority remained with the company. Their borings had touched the vital point of the springs, verifying geological predictions in the matter; and during the following year, 1879, the stout Choussy gave up the contest and sold out to the company. All the springs, six in number, came under a single control; competition ceased from this date, and the destructive rivalry of the preceding years was ended.

Its record remains in a curious clause which forms a part of the present company's charter from the Government. By that clause all proprietors or other persons in La Bourboule are forbidden to dig any well, for whatever purpose, on any property within a certain considerable distance of the precious springs. The restriction, under the peculiar geologic conditions of the problem, is doubtless a reasonable one. "It makes one tremble to think," says the learned physician, Dr. Boucomont of Royat, "that a single puncture of the source might open a subterranean channel of escape for these precious waters, and in a moment swallow up one of the chief treasures of our Auvergne."

The recently completed establishment is one of the most perfect in Europe. Nowhere have I seen a fuller or more intelligently contrived apparatus of appliances for external applications of every kind. The waters are now assured in their integrity, and in the most ample quantity (fifteen hundred gallons per minute). About seven thousand visitors now come annually to La Bourboule, and with reason: its waters form one of the most efficient remedies known in certain extensive classes of chronic disease. Of these I may speak on another occasion.

TITUS MUNSON COAN.

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TOLSTOI'S SOUVENIRS.

PARIS, February 25, 1886.

IT is impossible not to take an interest in whatever is written by Tolstoi. There is so much genius in 'War and Peace,' in 'Anna Karénine,' that you cannot help expecting some pleasure from whatever falls from the hands of the great Russian writer. I lately gave an account of his last work, 'My Religion,' and I could not help thinking, in analyzing it, of the old saying: "Aliquando dormitat Homerus." Now, I feel that I ought to give some account, not of the last works of Tolstoi, of the feelings and emotions of his old age, but of his early days and of his youth. There are few people who do not like to begin, so to speak, their lives over again. I confess that I have always admired the minuteness of the writers of memoirs, their extraordinary memory, the precision of their facts; to me, many years of the distant past are enveloped in a sort of dream, and I have great difficulty, when I wish to be perfectly sincere, and not to help my memory with my imagination, in reconstructing the past so as to give to it perfect life.

It is not so with Tolstoi; but Tolstoi is a man of genius, and distinctness of perception is one of his great attributes. He begins his 'Souvenirs' at the age of ten, and we learn much from him on the development of his mind. There is something quite childish in the first part of these 'Souvenirs.' Tolstoi had a preceptor, Karl Ivanitch, a German:

"Karl, with his spectacles on his nose, and a book in his hand, was sitting in the accustomed place. At the left of the door were two tables, one for the children, and *his*, the table of Karl Ivanitch. On ours were all sorts of books, some upright, others lying flat. . . . We were always ordered, before the recess, to put the *library* in order (this was the name which Karl Ivanitch gave to the table). As for his collection, if it was not as numerous as ours, it was more varied. I remember three volumes—a German pamphlet, unbound, upon the best manure for cabbages; a volume in parchment, with one corner burned, on the Seven Years' War; a complete treatise on hydrostatics. Karl Ivanitch spent most of his time in reading, so as even to hurt his eyes; but besides the books on his table and the paper, the *Northern Bee*, he read nothing."

Karl Ivanitch was old, he had a pure conscience and a peaceful soul, and Tolstoi loved him. "I sometimes said to myself: 'Poor old man! We children are many, we play, we amuse ourselves; he is alone and nobody fondles him. To be sure, he is an orphan. And how dreadful is his history! he once told it to Kolia." Nothing can be more charming than the description which Tolstoi gives of his mother, sitting by the samovar amidst her children, with the good old Karl, and the governess, Maria Ivanovna, or Mimi. "When mamma smiled (mamma was very handsome) she became even handsomer. . . . If I could only see that smile again in the difficult moments of life, I should not know what sorrow means. It seems to me that what is called beauty resides chiefly in the smile. If the smile embellishes, the face is handsome: if it does not change it, the face is ordinary; if it spoils it, the face is ugly."

Papa was a true Russian nobleman of the old school (he must often have been in Tolstoi's mind when he wrote his great novels), handsome, amiable, a man of pleasure, always in money difficulties, always mortgaging his estates. "He was," says Tolstoi, "a man of the last century, and, like all his contemporaries, he had in him something chivalrous, enterprising, confident, amiable, a passion for pleasure. He felt a great contempt for the men of our century. . . . His two great passions were cards and women. He gained or lost at cards, in the course of his life, several millions, and he was in love with an incalculable number of women, in all classes of society. . . . Nothing astonished him; in whatever situation he might have been placed, he would have seemed to be born for it." Here is another good *trait*: "He knew exactly the precise degree of pride and of presumption which raises a man in public opinion without giving offence to anybody." This gentleman of the last century belonged to the school of what was called then "sensibility"—he was emotional, he cried easily. When he read aloud he often became very pathetic. "He was one of those men who, when they wish to do a good action, must indispensably have a public." "There was no good in his eyes except what the public thought good." He could tell a story in a charming manner. "This," says Tolstoi, "is perhaps the reason why his principles were so elastic; according to the turn he gave to his talk, the same action became an amiable pleasantry or the greatest of horrors." It is clear that Tolstoi's father, whom he describes with so much impartiality, was not a family man, though he was adored by his wife. In the novels of Ivan Turgeneff, in the memoirs of Hertzen, we find the same type; the father of Tolstoi was a courtier of the time of the great Catharine.

The departure from the country to Moscow was a great event in the life of young Tolstoi. It is described with the minutest details—details which I might almost call photographic. "I still see all the domestics, and I could draw their portraits; but, strangely enough, the visage and the attitude of mamma are entirely out of my mind. This comes, perhaps, from the fact that during all this scene of the adieux I had not once the courage to look at her. It seemed to me that if I did, her sorrow and mine would surpass all bounds." The child travelled with his father, and his attention soon became absorbed by all the trifling incidents of the journey. In Moscow his education began more in earnest; but after a few months they were all recalled to the country by a grave malady of Tolstoi's mother. The child arrived in time to see her still living, but she died soon afterwards. Tolstoi describes his feelings on this occasion with great delicacy and pathos, analyzing them in a curious and almost painful way. When the service was ended,

"the face was visible, and all the assistants approached, one after the other, to kiss it. Almost at the end was a peasant woman, holding in her arms a pretty little girl five years old. God knows why she had brought her there. I had just dropped my wet handkerchief, and I stooped to pick it up, when I heard a scream, piercing, terrible, expressing such a terror that I shall never forget it if I live a hundred years; and when I think of it, I still shudder. I looked up; the peasant woman was on a footstool, next to the coffin, and tried to keep the little girl, who struggled and threw herself backwards with an expression of fear, and looked at the corpse with great screams. I screamed then even louder, I believe, and ran out of the room. . . . The idea that this face, so handsome, so amiable a few days before, the face of the person I loved above everything in the world, could inspire terror, unveiled (so to speak) the terrible truth, and filled my soul with despair."

We now come to the years of adolescence, and to the dreams which fill them. Tolstoi was a singular child. His imagination was morbid, his reflections were not much in accordance with his age. The reformer was already hidden in him. "During a whole year," says he, "I lived in an absolute moral isolation, lost in myself. The abstruse questions of human destiny, of a future life, of the immortality of the soul, offered themselves to me, and my feeble intelligence worked with all the ardor of inexperience at the solution of these great problems which human genius, in its greatest efforts, can only envisage without succeeding in solving them." He examined and tried, one after the other, all the philosophical systems. He had an abundance of ideas which gave him no rest, he lost himself in the wildest theories; and he acquired a rare faculty of incessant moral analysis. He sometimes thought that he was born for the good of mankind, that he should be a great man; "and, oddly enough, when I found myself in the presence of common mortals there was not one before whom I did not feel timid."

One of the prettiest chapters of the 'Souvenirs' is the story of Karl Ivanitch, who had to leave Tolstoi when he advanced in his studies and prepared to enter the university. "Was it really his story, which he had invented in his imagination while he remained in our house, and which he believed in the end for having told it so many times? Had he only put fantastic colors on true events? I do not yet know." The first time that Karl deigned to tell the long tale to his pupil he began thus: "God knows all and sees all! His will be done! Yes, Nicholas, my fate is to be unhappy; I was unhappy even before I was born, and I shall be so till I die. People have always rewarded me with evil for the good which I have done, and my recompense will not be given me in this world. If you knew all I have had to suffer! I have been a shoemaker, I have been a soldier, I have been a deserter, a manufacturer, a preceptor, and now I am dismissed, I am nothing, and I do not know where to lay my head." The military adventures of Karl Ivanitch are very characteristic: "It was a terrible time, Nicholas. It was the time of Napoleon. He wished to conquer Germany, and we fought to defend our country to the last drop of our blood. I was at Ulm, I was at Austerlitz, I was at Wagram." "So you really fought?" said Tolstoi, looking at him with astonishment. "You killed people?" The good Karl hastened to reassure his pupil. "Once," said he, "a French grenadier was left behind and fell on the road. I ran to him, and I was on the point of thrusting my bayonet through him, when he threw away his gun and said 'Pardon me,' so I let him go."

You can recognize easily in the story of Karl Ivanitch the author of 'War and Peace.' There is a curious chapter called "Eclipse," in which Tolstoi explains how, during his adolescence, his moral nature became, so to speak, eclipsed, and he was haunted by all sorts of bad ideas. He tells us the history of his *crimes*, as well as of his punishment. His new preceptor—a Frenchman, Saint-Gérôme—once shut him up in a dark room, and "'Basil,' he screamed, with a hideous and solemn voice, 'bring me the whip!'" This eclipse did not last long, and the 'Souvenirs' end with the account of Tolstoi's first friendship. He brought to it all the enthusiasm and ardor of his nature; he formed magnificent plans for the future of his friend and of himself. Alphonse Karr says that, in every affection, one loves, the other allows himself to be loved; one gives a kiss, the other offers the cheek. The friend of Tolstoi was of a passive disposition. Prince Dimitri Nekhliudoff, then a student, formed great plans for the regeneration of humanity, and, on the whole, his influence seems to have been good. Once in the University, Tolstoi enters into a new field of what he calls *rêveries*. He describes minutely his state of mind, his ambitions, his hopes, his family circle, the rules of life he made for himself. But the charm of all these confidences is entirely in the details, and I must refer the reader to the 'Souvenirs' themselves. On the whole, though they will add nothing to the fame of the writer, they are interesting as documents concerning the first stages of development of a great and noble mind.

Correspondence.

THE KENTUCKY RESOLUTIONS OF '98.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Sharing with you the interest you take in Mr. Durrett's valuable contribution to the history

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of the "Kentucky Resolutions of 1798 and 1799," as found in the March number of the *Southern Bivouac*, I beg leave to subjoin to your note on that paper (*Nation*, No. 1080, p. 219) that the method of research to which you refer, as affording a probable means for ascertaining the genuine text of the earlier series, has already been brought to this inquiry by Prof. N. S. Shaler, in his recently published history of Kentucky. Prof. Shaler says: "Knowing that a copy of the document [the Resolutions of 1798] had been sent to the Governor of Massachusetts, it seemed to me worth while to search for it in the archives of the Secretary's office of that Commonwealth. The search was kindly undertaken by the present Secretary, Henry B. Pierce, Esq., and fortunately resulted in the discovery of the copy given below. The document is neatly printed, and in a perfect state of preservation. It may therefore fairly be taken as an exact copy of the original" (Shaler's 'Kentucky,' p. 409).

On comparing the text of the *Bivouac* reprint with the copy reprinted from the Massachusetts archives, I find the two to be identical in point of contents, the variations being such as result from the different spelling of certain words and from a difference in the frequency with which italic and capital letters are used. In Mr. Shaler's copy the punctuation and orthography are modernized. Mr. Durrett's copy seems to be the facsimile reprint of some copy which, in point of typography at least, must be closely related to the year 1798. In one of its passages, the blurred aspect of some of the characters in the original seems to have been reproduced.

Both of these copies contain in the first resolution of the series a clause—"its co-States forming, as to itself, the other party"—which has been dropped out in editions of Elliot's Debates published since the year 1832. As you remark that "varying versions of the Resolutions got early into print with every apparent mark of authenticity," I would be exceedingly obliged to you, or to any of your readers, if you or they will refer me to any publication prior to the year 1832 in which the above-cited clause does not form an integral part of the first resolution. I make this inquiry for purely historical reasons, because I suppose myself to have discovered the time and place in which the text was for the first time corrupted. JAMES C. WELLING.

WASHINGTON, March 13, 1886.

CHALLENGE AND BANTER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Respecting the use of "banter" in the sense of "challenge," I would say that the word has that familiar meaning in southern Ohio, especially on the Ohio River, where I was reared. It was a favorite sport with the boys of my time to "*play 'banner'*"—for thus the word was commonly pronounced. A leader would start off on a series of adventurous acts, in which he would be imitated in regular turn by his Indian file of followers. These performances were often reckless and dangerous, and many a ducking or bad fall was the fate of the unskilful or unfortunate.

Also, one boy would "banner" another to do something, like: "I'll 'banner' you to skate over that thin ice after me," or, "to 'run' those loose logs."

I agree with "W. H. J.," in your issue of March 4, as to the distinction he draws between "challenging" a rival base-ball nine and one boy "bantering" another for a race. But the latter expression was not commonly used, our "banner" being more like a challenge of a "dare"—a test of skill, activity, or nerve. But the preposition "for," was not a necessary adjunct of the verb "banner." The preposition "to" with the infinitive of the act, or the present participle, like "skating," was the general use. We also said "doing 'banners'"; and to "make a 'banner'" was to make the break in the performance, or establish the route of ventures to be followed.

C. B., Jr.

DENVER, COL., March 8, 1886.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been surprised to find abundant confirmation of Mr. Utter's statement in your issue of February 18, that "banter" is generally used for "dare" in southern Ohio. Old residents in this neighborhood and in Cincinnati tell me such use is common. But I was much more surprised to-day to read, in an account of 'A Crosby Family,' page 61, printed in Lowell, Mass., the following:

"My father found a competitor in Moultonboro in Doctor Morse, but after a little while he bantered the doctor to sell out, which he did," etc.

The employment of the word in this peculiar sense by Judge Crosby, of Lowell, whose whole life was spent in New Hampshire and Massachusetts—the whole early part of it in remote country towns—seems to show that even in some towns of New England "banter" is used in a sense kindred, at least, to "challenge."

Respectfully,

WILLIAM F. BRIDGE.

FOSTERS, OHIO, March 10, 1886.

[We will close the discussion of this interesting locution by referring our correspondent to p. 172 of the 'Writings of N. P. Rogers,' a native and life-long resident of New Hampshire, editing the *Herald of Freedom* when he wrote (issue of October 1, 1841, italics ours): "Two scientific pedestrians halted here . . . and . . . *bantered* one another to jump in."—ED. NATION.]

"AUTHOR"—EDITOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Every person who is interested in having the New English Dictionary made complete and accurate owes you thanks for your conclusive answer to "J. P." in the issue of the *Nation* for March 4. Your timely caution to the editors and "more than 1,300 readers," said to be engaged on that work, will, it is to be hoped, make them more thorough and sharp-sighted. At all events, there ought not to have been any occasion for reminding them that the word "author" was used in the eighteenth century, both in America and England, in the sense of *editor* of a periodical. As you more than intimate, for the editors of the work to overlook the newspapers and magazines published in the eighteenth century, would be to overlook the department of literary production which best shows the remarkable growth and modifications of our language in that period.

In regard to the use of "author" in the sense mentioned above, permit me to make an inquiry. Instances of this usage can be found in Massachusetts newspapers as late as 1773; can an instance subsequent to that date be pointed out in any American publication? A. H. H.

BOSTON, March 8, 1886.

AN APPEAL FROM MISSISSIPPI.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As the discussion of the Blair bill, in and out of Congress, is one of the most interesting topics at present, it occurred to me that the views of parties living in the illiterate section might be of interest to your readers.

Wilkinson County, of which Woodville is the county seat, has a population made up of about two-thirds black and one-third white people. The State and county taxes are 18 mills, of which the school tax is 3 mills. It would be a fair estimate that the taxes represent 15 per cent. of the net income of property-holders. With the low price of cotton prevailing, it would be impossible to increase the taxes. The white people pay 90 per cent. of the taxes and receive 35 per cent. of the benefit of the school tax. The black people pay 10 per cent. of the taxes and receive 65 per cent. of the benefit.

As the present working of the school system is the very best that we are able to have under existing circumstances, let us examine the condition of the public schools. The school fund enables us to run the public schools during four months of twenty days each annually. The teachers are paid, according to the number of scholars, from $8 to $50 per month; a fair average would fall below $25 per month, equivalent to $100 per scholastic year. Now, what kind of material can be had for such a salary? Our worthy Superintendent of Public Schools examined candidates for positions as teacher who were looking for the West Indies among the Rocky Mountains, and who had no idea of fractions. Can this material be depended upon to dispel the literary darkness around us? Is not our situation desperate? In our impoverished condition to educate the white children and twice the quantity of black children thrust upon us, may we not, without being considered paupers, exclaim: "Help us, or we perish!" P. MÖLLER.

WOODVILLE, MISS., March 1, 1886.

[This is a dark showing, truly, and still not the worst that the South might make. There are corresponding degrees of school privileges, or lack of them, and of teaching capacity at the North. They furnish a ground of compassion, but they do not affect the general principle involved in opposition to the Blair bill—the danger of fostering a fatal dependence on external aid, especially in a State which is making notable educational progress by its own impulse.—ED. NATION.]

STATE AID TO EDUCATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow me to call attention to a point which seems to have been forgotton in the recent discussions as to the advisability of making national grants in aid of education? Your position, that gifts of money to the South for this purpose would in the long run prove a detriment to the self-reliance of the people, and consequently to education itself, is undoubtedly correct. The testimony of Connecticut would, at first thought, seem to confirm your objections to all national aid whatsoever. It is, indeed, a "fact," as you say, and facts, as all know, go a great way with Americans. We should not, however, so completely yield our allegiance to them as to forget to try to understand them. That State money has been and may still be badly used is no proof, though, that it can be made to do no good. The whole question turns on its administration. If the administration is bad, State or national grants in aid of education are likely to do more harm than good, as in the case of Connecticut. But if the administrators of that fund had been wise enough to make its distribution to the districts depend upon a reasonable amount of local effort, the State Commissioner would now have a different story to tell.

We have, for instance, in Illinois, an example of the good State money may do in stimulating local effort even with very light conditions. In that State the income from public-school funds, together with the direct State school tax, is 20 per cent. of all money expended for education in

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the State. The distribution to the districts is made on the one condition of their supporting a school for six months each year. This condition is always complied with, and at a present cost of over $29.00 per pupil in average attendance. A much smaller grant from the State would secure the fulfilment of the imposed condition. Similar results follow the administration of the income from State funds in other States. Again, the Peabody fund is administered on the same principle; yet nobody claims that this tends to demoralize the people, for it helps only those who help themselves.

But the most striking example of enormous State subsidies to education, which at the same time have no tendency to produce stagnation and helplessness among those who receive their benefits, is found in England. The total Parliament grant for elementary education in England and Wales alone was, in 1884-85, £3,110,912, and was made not only to public schools, but, startling as it may seem, most largely to schools organized and managed by religious societies. That which at first view looks like subsidizing religious bodies at public expense, excites neither alarm nor serious opposition in England, yet this is perhaps the most thoroughly non-paternal government in the world. As in the United States so here, everything turns on the administration. Grants are made chiefly on these conditions, viz.:

1. That at least an equal amount of money be provided by local effort.

2. That the school be held in approved premises and taught by duly certificated teachers.

3. That a portion of the grant depend upon the individual examination of pupils by Government inspectors.

Subject to these conditions, the various classes of schools receive from Government subsidy the following per cent. of their whole school expenditure:

	Pupils.	Per cent.
1. Church of England Schools	1,607,823	43.5
2. Wesleyan Schools	128,584	45.8
3. Roman Catholic Schools	167.841	48.7
4. British Undenominational and Other Schools	253,044	42.5
5. School Board Schools	1,115,832	36.1
Total for Elementary Schools		41.04

Twenty years ago England was one of the worst educated of civilized countries; now, under the action of State aid, it is one of the best. Further, under the beneficial action of well-administered school subsidies, it has raised teaching from a poor calling to a respected and profitable profession. So it might be in America. A well-administered national grant for public schools would be as beneficial in its action as similar grants have been to elementary education in England. A national *gift* would do more harm than good.

CHAS. DE GARMO.

HALLE, February 26, 1886.

YALE COLLEGE AND THE SCIENTIFIC SCHOOL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

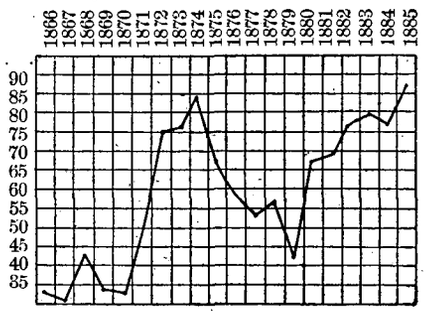
SIR: It is a common assumption, among the defenders of the "old régime" at Yale, that they are entitled to whatever credit may accrue from the progress of the Scientific School. They claim that since it is an undergraduate department of the University, its numbers should be added to those of the similarly undergraduate Academical Department, in any comparison with the progress of rival institutions.

It was with full foresight of this probable but illusive objection that I determined to exclude the Scientific School from the larger part of my previous comparison. The baselessness of the objection is apparent to any graduate of the School; but to the alumni of the other department a few words of explanation may be necessary.

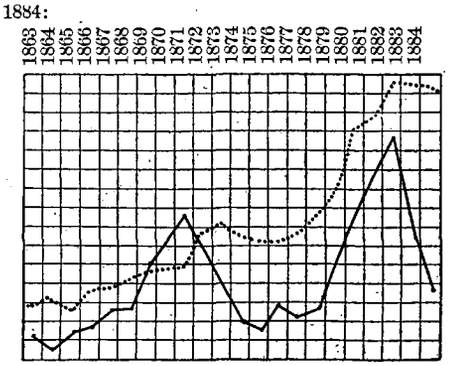
The first and most obvious reason for its exclusion is the fact that the President and Fellows of the College have had nothing whatever to do with the progressive management of the School. The credit of its success belongs elsewhere, as is well known.

A second objection is found in the fact that the comparison is drawn between two systems of education, as well as between two colleges that practise them. It could only confuse the solution to make the Scientific School, with its three years' course and strictly technical education for an average of 74 per cent. of its students, a factor in the problem. It is designed to educate good civil and dynamical engineers, chemists, and metallurgists. President Eliot's annual report for the college year 1884-85 shows that nobody goes to the Academical Department of Harvard College for this class of instruction. And besides, while every Harvard undergraduate receives the full benefit of all the instruction offered in the Academic Department of the University, no academical undergraduate at Yale can share in any way the instruction so admirably given in the Scientific School. To include the Scientific School in the comparison of numbers would therefore vitiate the force of the whole argument with respect to instruction.

In the third place, just as the management of the Scientific School has had nothing in common with that of the College, so has its growth been determined by other and entirely extrinsic causes. The following diagram shows the fluctuations in the number of students entering the Freshman classes of the Scientific School every year of the last twenty:



It will be found instructive to compare these lines with those that display the same facts for the Academic Department (*Nation*, p. 148). And the causes of the contrast are as different as the results. The Scientific School sends the bulk of its graduates into the great technical professions. It furnishes the supply for a certain demand; and the number of its students is dependent upon the progress of the industries in whose development these technical professions play a part. The following diagram shows the progress of railway construction and the output of the iron and Bessemer steel trades for the twenty-two years 1863-1884:



The solid line shows the fluctuations in the miles of new railway annually constructed, while the dotted line denotes the number of tons of steel and iron annually produced. It will be observed that there is a remarkable relationship between this diagram and that which precedes it, indicating that the fluctuations of the classes follow, accurately enough, the fluctuations of these great industries, at an average distance of two or three years. No such relationship is apparent in the figures of the Academical Departments of either college.

The fact is, that any attempt to mix more than about 26 per cent. of the Scientific School figures with those of the Academical Department is a simple attempt to obscure the real causes of Yale's decline. Had the cases been reversed, and were it a question of adding one of *Harvard's* professional schools to the College in order to enable it to make a fair showing alongside of Yale, the Yale apologists would have made a terrible outcry against it. And yet it would be almost as fair to add the Harvard Law School to the College figures as the Sheffield Scientific School to Yale's.

For the accuracy of my statement with regard to elective studies at Harvard in 1841, I shall cite President Eliot as authority. He shows, in his annual report for 1883-4, page 13, that a system of elective studies was opened by vote of the Faculty, May 24, 1841, not only to juniors and seniors, but even to sophomores. These reports also afford information concerning the influence and functions of the Board of Overseers which the College catalogues do not supply.

EDWARD D. PAGE.

NEW YORK, March 11, 1886.

THE TARIFF ON DIRT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Referring to your editorial of the 11th inst., on the "great struggle over the tariff on dirt," permit us to call your attention to the fact that, inasmuch as the scoured wool loses nearly 50 per cent. of its weight in being cleansed, a duty of two and one-half cents per pound on unwashed wool is equivalent to five cents per pound on scoured wool—*i. e.*, the same quantity of wool as it left the sheep's back unwashed at two and one-half cents per pound would bring into the Treasury, when scoured and charged five cents per pound, no more duty. Therefore, the difference between two and one-half cents on unwashed and five cents on scoured wool is practically one and the same thing, and wherein it is a tax on dirt is not apparent.

The other two and one-half cents per pound on scoured wool (making the entire duty seven and one-half cents) is no more than a fair equivalent, in view of the fact that the thorough cleansing or scouring has made an article fitted for other uses than those for which unwashed wool can be employed. The scoured wool is ready for immediate use by the manufacturer, and will take dyes without further cleansing. This is not the case with either unwashed or washed wools, both of which require further cleansing.

The statute imposes a certain duty on wools in a certain condition, *e. g.*, scoured. It matters not how they got to be scoured, whether by the use of chemicals and machinery or by hand labor and hot water. It is the *condition*, and not the process, which governs. Now, in the case of the Donskoi wools, it is undisputed that they are so thoroughly cleansed that nothing more is requisite to fit them for dyeing and manufacture.

Truly yours, DALLAS SANDERS,
JAMES W. M. NEWLIN.

NEW YORK, March 13, 1886.

[It seems, then, that the duty on wool is two and one-half cents per pound, and the duty on scouring two and one-half cents per pound more, and the duty on immediate usefulness two and one-half cents per pound more. We are no sticklers for terms, but it looks to us as though

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the last two and one-half cents were a premium on the importation of dirt. This is the view taken by Mr. John L. Hayes, a great tariff authority, in a recent humorous publication.—Ed. Nation.]

POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The failure of the "Dime Savings Bank" at New Brunswick, with the widespread suffering that it entails, affords another proof, if any were needed, of the pressing call for Congressional action in the matter of postal savings banks. An event like this failure operates as a discouragement to thrift in every town and village through the country to which the news penetrates. The poor have little opportunity of discriminating in such matters; they learn that those who placed the fruits of self-denial for years in the New Brunswick bank found it swept away in a moment; the depositors had economized in order that a dishonest cashier might speculate in Wall Street. To the poor, laying up money involves a multitude of sacrifices, and, at least, when laid by it should be made safe for them. But through a very large portion of this country this can only be accomplished by the action of the Government. The matter is now under discussion by a Congressional committee, and public opinion should be brought to bear upon the committee in a very emphatic way. L.

DUTY AND HONOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have, by chance, in the same half-hour, come across two stories, each interesting in itself from the men concerned, and both together so singularly emphasizing an excellence of English character and a peculiar form of moral discipline connected with English Parliamentary life, that it is perhaps worth while to bring them in connection with one another before your readers. The one is to be found in Mr. Leslie Stephen's 'Life of Fawcett,' the other in Mr. J. Cotter Morison's study of Macaulay—both works of much interest in all respects.

Mr. Stephen, *in relating* Mr. Fawcett's *action* with regard to the preservation of Commons, describes the incessant vigilance on Fawcett's part needed to secure the legislation desired. At one moment the struggle (which was between the Government and Fawcett and his supporters) resolved itself into a determination on Fawcett's side to prevent the passage of a proposed bill:

"The third reading of the bill was set down for every Government night. It did not come on for discussion till the end of the evening's debates—that is, often at 2 or 3 A. M. . . . If Fawcett or his supporters had failed to be in their places, the third reading might have been achieved without opposition. But night after night he was ready, and the motion for the third reading postponed. On one occasion Fawcett, as he used often to relate, had caught a bad cold. He sent a message to the Government whip asking that the motion might be once more postponed as it had been so often before. He received no answer; but fancying that his request would be granted as a matter of course, he was retiring to bed. A friend happening to call suggested that it would be safer not to relax even for a night. Fawcett struggled into his wraps, went to the House and found that business had been so arranged as to secure the passage of the Enclosure Bill. The whip started 'like a guilty thing surprised' on the apparition of Fawcett in the lobby, but good-humoredly admitted the failure of his little bit of dexterity, and gave a formal undertaking which enabled Fawcett to get once more into bed with a safe conscience."

It was not he alone who would not go to bed except "with a safe conscience." After the breakdown of Macaulay's health in July, 1852, he was constantly oppressed with asthma and heart disease, and so weak at times that he could hardly walk, even with a stick. But as long as he was a member of the House of Commons, although his constituents were willing to grant him every indulgence, his attendance in the House often took little heed to prudence. On one occasion, as he wrote in his diary,

"I was in pain and very poorly. I went down to the House and paired. On my return, just as I was getting into bed, I received a note from Hayter to say that he had paired me. I was very unwilling to go out at that hour [it was in January], and afraid of the night air; but I have a horror of the least suspicion of foul play, so I dressed and went again to the House, settled the matter about the pairs, and came back at near 12 o'clock."

It is such men as these who not only "command the applause of listening senates," but who may proudly "read their history in a nation's eyes."

In speaking of this devotion to duty as an excellence of English character, let it not be supposed that I would imply it to be *peculiar* to the English; but with what kind of emotion does an American read on another of Mr. Stephen's pages *this* passage, which, perhaps, I may also be allowed to quote?

"Fawcett frequently remarked to me [while Postmaster-General] upon the high standard of honor in the public service, observing that officials in receipt of moderate salaries had often to decide upon questions, such as mail contracts, involving large sums of money, and that there was never the slightest suspicion of their turning their opportunities to private profit."

* *

SLEET OR HAIL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is curious to note that there is a wonderful lack of uniformity as to what is understood by the term "sleet." If you merely announce that "it is sleeting," and refer to an ordinary Physics or Physical Geography to see what sort of information you have really given, you will no doubt be astonished, if not amused, to learn that no less than six varieties of phenomena are described by Geikie, Maury, Steele, Webster, and the leading encyclopædias.

Now, in Maryland—at least in this section—it is only "sleet" when the rain has frozen on the ground. *Further south,* "*it sleets*" when fine particles of ice (frozen rain) pepper one on the upturned face. Indeed, a professor in a university of note has told me, "Sleet is frozen rain; hail is an aggregation of sleet-drops—*i. e.*, is always compound."

Since I am convinced that there is no little confusion in the ordinary understanding of the terms, I have thought to call forth some really reliable information through these most discriminating and satisfactory columns.

G. F. Yonce.

Lutherville, Md.

STENOLOGY (?).

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Does man possess an instinctive language—not the Babel of the thousand and one tongues that divide human intercourse, but the defined form of sound of natural intuition? Has not the bee, the ant, its own language by which the common interests of the community are directed; the brute creation instinctive sounds, by which ideas are communicated? The bird also—for instance, the nightingale—has it not a language? The beautiful songster sends forth its notes without hesitation, no mistake is made, the phrase is decided on before utterance, the words conveyed to his fellow companions, to us unintelligible, though a most enchanting symphony of sound. Has man, then, no inborn language, revealed perhaps in part and dispersed in the language of the world, to be further evoluted as the human mind is developed?

This question has been suggested under the following circumstances. At the moment between waking and sleeping an imaginary conversation frequently crosses the field of the mind. It is then, occasionally, that a few syllables appear to me to express the exact idea intended to be conveyed. On waking, the words have no apparent meaning, although so precisely adapted at the moment of expression. This ideal phraseology has been repeated, at intervals, for years past, perhaps on fifty different occasions, the words differing each time. No record has been kept, as until now the writer has paid no attention to the question. The idea has suggested itself of the possible existence of an innate language. So far as memory carries me, the words, in general, were short, and the letter *a* was pronounced as in the Italian language.—Yours truly, F.C.

Notes.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press a new translation from the German by Mrs. A. L. Wister, 'Violetta': a new novel by George Thomas Dowling, 'The Wreckers: a Social Study'; and 'The Story of Don Miff as told by his friend John Bouche Whacker: a Symphony of Life, edited by Virginius Dabney.' This last, a subscription book (the author's address being No. 108 West Forty-ninth Street, New York), is an attempt "to portray life in the South in the old days," at first in peace time in Richmond and the lower tide-water region of Virginia; afterwards, during the rebellion, in "The Valley."

A Hancock Monograph, with a steel portrait of the late General, will be published immediately by G. P. Putnam's Sons. They have also nearly ready 'A Study of Dante,' by Susan E. Blow; 'Essays on Finance, Wages, and Trade,' by Robert Giffen, President of the British Statistical Society; the 'Physics and Metaphysics of Money,' with special regard to California, by Rodmond Gibbons; and 'Torpedoes for National Defence,' by Lieut. William H. Jaques, U. S. A.

Another reconciliation of science and theology will be attempted in 'Reason and Revelation, Hand in Hand,' by Rev. Thomas M. McWhinney, D.D., of which Fords, Howard & Hulbert are the publishers.

'The Prelate,' a story of the American colony and native society in Rome, by Isaac Henderson; 'The Sphinx's Children: and Other People's,' by Rose Terry Cooke; and 'A Stroll with Keats,' by Frances Clifford Brown, illustrated, are about to be issued by Ticknor & Co.

A missionary work is announced to be 'Triumphant Democracy,' by Andrew Carnegie, now in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

Ginn & Co. announce for May 1 'Our Government,' a text-book, by J. Macy, Professor of History and Political Science in Iowa College.

D. C. Heath & Co. announce 'A Short Manual of Chemical Arithmetic,' by J. Milnor Coit, of St. Paul's School, Concord, N. H.

A 'History of the Storrs Family,' compiled by the late Charles Storrs, of Brooklyn, is promised immediately by A. S. Barnes & Co.

'In Aid of Faith' is the title selected for a series of articles, by the Rev. Lyman Abbott, that appeared in the *Christian Union* last year under a slightly different caption. They have been revised for republication in book form by E. P. Dutton & Co.

Whittier's new volume of verse, which Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have nearly ready, is to be entitled, 'St. Gregory's Guest, and Other Poems.'

The same publishers have just added to their dainty little Riverside Aldine Series Warner's 'Back-Log Studies'; and have likewise produced

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a new edition of the late Richard Grant White's 'Words and Their Uses.'

A translation, by A. L. Alger, of the third edition of Reissmann's 'Life and Works of Robert Schumann' has just been added to the Bohn Library (Scribner & Welford). Reissmann is one of the most prolific and best informed of modern writers on musical topics. Besides editing a musical dictionary of his own and the last five volumes of Mendel's great work, he has written numerous theoretical works, biographies of Mendelssohn, Schubert, Haydn, Bach, etc. His style is somewhat diffuse, and his generalizations are occasionally too vague, but his facts are reliable, his inferences usually correct, and his opinions unbiassed. His 'Schumann' is perhaps the best of his biographical works; and as the world is only beginning to realize what inexhaustible treasures of beautiful music are stored up in Schumann's scores, this biography ought to have a wide circle of readers. Especially to be commended is the chapter on Schumann's *Lieder*, or songs, a department of music too much neglected in this country. The translation reads smoothly, and appears to be free from errors.

H. C. Banister's 'Handbook of Music,' of which twelve editions have appeared in England, was well worth reprinting in this country (Henry Holt & Co.). It covers the whole range of musical theory, beginning with notation and the scales, and explaining the chords, counterpoint, fugue, the elements of composition, etc. The various instruments are also briefly explained, and there is a glossary of musical terms, and numerous examples for practice. While avoiding anything that seems revolutionary, the writer believes in the enlargement of the basis of contrapuntal study, in conformity with the wider range of harmonies now recognized; and he does not sanction the rigid exclusion of the chord of the 7th and its inversions. The book was primarily intended for the use of students preparing for examinations; but it would make an excellent textbook in music schools, while the definitions are sufficiently clear to make it of value to private students. There are, of course, numerous illustrations in musical type.

Professor Lewis Campbell, of the University of St. Andrews, and Mr. Evelyn Abbott, of Balliol College, Oxford, have by their joint labors added to the "Clarendon Press Series" an edition of all the extant tragedies of Sophocles, "for the use of schools," in two beautiful 12mo volumes. In 1879-81 Professor Campbell published a very elaborate and complete edition of Sophocles, also at the Clarendon Press, containing almost everything that the advanced scholar would like to know, and the knowledge of which is attainable, in regard to the great Greek dramatist. The present edition is founded upon the larger one, with such omissions, additions, and alterations as were necessary to render it more suitable for use as a text-book. The first volume contains the general introduction and the Greek text; the second, the commentary and indexes. Among the points of interest in the general introduction is a list of the titles, so far as they have been preserved, of the dramas of Sophocles. This list contains the titles of 115 dramas, all but 7 of which have perished with the exception of here and there a few lines or words quoted by other writers. For this wholesale destruction it is some consolation that we are justified in believing that the seven tragedies which time has spared are the masterpieces of Sophocles's genius. There is also a list of about 350 words "peculiar to Sophocles, or copied by later writers only." The metres of the dramas are very minutely treated, and the account of the MSS. from which our texts are made up is very interesting. It will perhaps surprise some of those who are unacquainted with the sources whence our texts of the Greek authors are drawn, to learn that between the date of the death of Sophocles and the date of the MS. which is at once the oldest and the best that we possess, a period of about fifteen centuries intervenes. The commentary is very full, and the "introductory analyses" to the plays are of such extent, and are evidently written with so much care and with such subtle appreciativeness, that they might with almost equal fitness be collectively entitled "Essays on the treatment and development of the plots and characters in tragedies of Sophocles." It may not be out of place to remind our readers that Professor Campbell was the schoolfellow, life-long friend, and biographer of James Clerk Maxwell.

The petition of Prudence Crandall (Mrs. Philleo) to the Connecticut Legislature for redress for injuries done to her estate in Canterbury in 1833-35 has revived the history of her *cause célèbre*. The pulpit (very properly, having some amends to make in the matter) has taken it up, and there lies before us a thin pamphlet discourse, 'Connecticut's Canterbury Tale, and its Moral for To-day,' by John C. Kimball, Pastor of Unity Church, Hartford. It is embellished with the early and the late portrait of the heroine already made widely familiar in the *Century Magazine* and in the Life of Garrison. The preacher is in error in making Miss Crandall a native of New Hampshire. She was born in Rhode Island.

Mr. S. S. Rider, in his last *Book-Notes* (Providence, March 13), gathers together some indications concerning the life of the wife of Roger Williams, whose maiden name is doubtful, as is the time of her arrival in Providence and also the date of her death.

An Audubon Society has been formed to protect wild birds from destruction for millinery and commercial purposes. Its headquarters are at 40 Park Row, New York.

The Sea-Side Laboratory at Annisquam, Mass., will be reopened to students during the coming season, by the aid of the Women's Education Association and under the direction of the Boston Society of Natural History. Address the Curator, Mr. Alpheus Hyatt.

We chronicle with pleasure the beginning of a new undertaking of value to our scholarly readers: *Wiener Beiträge zur Deutschen und Englischen Philologie* (Vienna, Braumüller). The editors are Heinzel, Minor, Schipper—names whose *imprimatur* is a sufficient guarantee to the initiated. In make-up and scope the *Beiträge* are evidently intended to rival the well-known Strassburg *Quellen und Forschungen*. The initial volume has just reached us: 'Sir Thomas Wyatt und seine Stellung in der Entwickelungsgeschichte der Englischen Literatur und Verskunst,' by Rudolph Alscher. The author is a pupil of Schipper's, and his pamphlet of 143 pp. is the expansion and rewriting of his work in Schipper's *Seminar*. It treats of Wyatt's life, works, and metres. Those of us who are already familiar with Schipper's thorough method will recognize in the débutant a worthy pupil. The series opens well, and we wish it a long prosperity.

—The second number of the *New Princeton Review* opens with an article on the poet Gray, by Mr. Lowell. It is sufficient of itself to make the number a success. The rubbish that is talked about the eighteenth century by men who know nothing about it, has now become so oppressively wearisome that the intelligent reader experiences a sense of peculiar gratification when he comes across an article even which has little to recommend it, save the fact that it is free from the conventional cant that finds constant expression about this period. In this case, however, we have exhibited, in addition, the most thorough appreciation of it, both as regards its strength and weakness. Into the nature of Gray's genius and the characteristics both of his prose and poetic style, Mr. Lowell seems to us to show far keener insight than has been displayed by any of that author's numerous critics, though the list of these includes some of the most eminent names in later English literature. We are disposed to say the same thing of the treatment of the poet's personal qualities and habits of mind. About the facts stated, were we to give utterance to any dissent, it would be merely that "courteously friendly" hardly seems a strong enough expression for the relations existing between Walpole and Gray after their reconciliation. On the part of the former, in spite of occasional slight criticism, it is surely not strong enough. Incidentally, the opening pages of this essay give, in a short space, the most felicitous criticism, felicitously expressed, of Dryden that we remember to have seen in our literature. But the whole article, from beginning to end, is full of striking and suggestive passages. Mr. Lowell furnishes from that most delightful of epistolary correspondence (the letters of Gray) a number of entertaining extracts; but it would be no difficult matter to pick from his own article a number of short sentences that would fully parallel them in their wit and wisdom. We trust that this essay is but the beginning of a series. Certainly if anything would justify the English-speaking race in rejoicing that Mr. Lowell had been withdrawn from the field of diplomacy, it would be that he had entered upon the field of literary criticism. There he has no living superior, and the periodical is to be congratulated which can secure his services.

—One of the first fruits of Boston's attempt to organize her charities may be seen in the somewhat surprising little book called 'A Directory of the Charitable and Beneficent Organizations of Boston, together with Legal Suggestions, etc., prepared for the Associated Charities' (Cupples, Upham & Co.). Index and all make less than 200 pages, but recall Sir Walter Scott's story of the man who found in the dictionary "braw stories but unco' short." The Preface, which is really an excellent key to the contents, says that the book contains a good deal besides descriptions of charitable societies. For instance, Vacation Schools, the Hemenway Industrial Schools, and others, Training Schools for Nurses, and Mrs. Shaw's Kindergartens now appear for the first time in the new light which has gleamed upon that much abused word, "charity." The book, too, proves to be a record of the development of ideas and the advancement of the uneducated. Hints toward reform in public institutions are discernible: such as the removal of pauper girls from a criminal institution, and improvement in the boarding-out system, and separation of young offenders from hardened wrong-doers. Manual training in schools is recorded, and the clues given for its increase. Nor is the Public Library omitted, with its branches spreading out into the poorer and outlying districts. We have space only to refer to two other points of special interest, one of which is the little library connected with the central office of the Associated Charities, where any one may consult books bearing upon almost every branch of the large subject of political economy; the other is that portion of the book devoted to "Legal Suggestions." Here we find, in a perfectly accessible form, the statutes relating to the many forms of abuse which persons interested in the unfortunate of the earth are chiefly brought in contact with. Looking at these closely printed pages, and remembering that Boston is a city of only about 400,000 inhabitants, a stranger to the subject might ask, Is it a city entirely of the poor that so much help is needed? The reply must be: "No,

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it is a rich city which has been ignorant and unmindful of the true needs of the poor until a nation of paupers has grown up about it." But Boston is not exceptional in this respect, though this book shows it capable of setting a useful example in rectification of past errors.

—The census of Wisconsin for the year 1885, published by State authority, has just appeared. An unexpected blunder is prominent in this work, namely, respecting the area of Wisconsin, which the Secretary of State, the responsible editor, states to be 34,359,246 acres—that is, 53,686 square miles. The true area, according to the United States Census returns (vol. i, p. 668), is 54,450 miles, which is 764 miles more than Wisconsin claims. This mistake may well be called "unexpected," because it is a statistical blunder unfavorable to those who make it. It gives up a tract three-fourths as large as Rhode Island, and shows the acreage of Wisconsin as less than that of Florida, which is really a smaller State. Such errors usually lean to the advantage of those who commit them. Thus Governor Ireland, in a spread-eagle paper on Texas (a disguised immigration pamphlet), in the December number of the *North American Review*, says that State "has an area of 274,000 square miles, which is larger than the half of Europe, omitting Russia." Here is a two-fold misstatement, and that throughout in favor of Texas. Governor Ireland's domain, according to our supreme authority, falls short of 274,000 miles by almost 12,000 miles (11,710)—an extent greater than that of Maryland. Again, instead of being larger than half of non-Russian Europe, Texas, even according to Governor Ireland's overestimate, is not one-third so spacious as that moiety, which is well-nigh 1,700,000 square miles. But to return to Wisconsin. The population, according to the State Census of 1885, amounts to 1,563,423, showing a gain of almost 19 per cent. upon the United States returns for 1880. This vast gain in the last five years may be viewed with suspicion by those who note that in the previous five years, from 1875 to 1880, the increase was only one-third as much, or about 6 1-3 per cent. At all events, as the growth in the last decade was largely in the first half of it, we may fairly infer that history will here repeat itself in slow growth for five years to come. But, taken for all in all, the Wisconsin statistics seem to have been scrupulously gathered and dexterously bound up in sheaves for the garner. As to the increment of 326,696 souls within the last quinquennium, it is noticeable that most of it has taken place in the north. Well-nigh half the growth has been in twelve of the sixty-seven counties, only one of which twelve is in the south; and the growth in that one is due to gravitation to urban life in Milwaukee. In three southern counties the numbers have actually fallen off. There are nine towns in the State of over 10,000 inhabitants; six of these are in the north. More than one-fourth of the entire populational advance is credited to immigration from foreign lands, chiefly Germany and Scandinavia. Hence the percentage of foreigners is now larger than in 1880, though it does not to-day amount to a third of all the inhabitants. In exact figures it stands 493,996 to 1,069,533 natives. But foreign immigrants from beyond the sea are largely men, and those in their best years. Hence one census result otherwise incredible is nothing strange, namely, that in 1880 the foreign-born voters in Wisconsin outnumbered the native-born by 40,000 (40,006). This disproportion is now still more enormous. But the foreign element is nowhere concentrated in large masses. It leaves no corner of the State untouched, and yet forms the majority in no single county. It everywhere prefers the English language. German churches abound, but German preachers find it necessary to abandon their vernacular in at least half their services. If they do not, they are straightway themselves abandoned by their young people. Those who are heretical on monometallism are orthodox on monolingual speech.

—The acreage of Wisconsin, even according to its own underestimate, exceeds that of England by more than two millions. Their actual proportions are—England, 32,590,897 acres, to 34,848,000 in Wisconsin. The farm lands in the State foot up sixteen and one-third millions, and of these not quite one-half are improved; three and two-thirds millions are farm woodland, while the lumber region—pine and hard wood—covers full half the State. Most of this land, when cleared, will be suitable for agricultural purposes. In regard to agricultural and manufacturing products, there is no statement for what year the returns are made. But the year 1884 must be meant. A few leading staples are: corn, thirty-eight millions of bushels; wheat, twenty-one; oats, forty-three; barley, eleven and a half. The tobacco crop (three-fourths of it in two counties) was valued at three millions, and manufactures of it at as much more; cheese also three millions, and butter twice as much. The horses were more than 400,000, or about one to every four inhabitants; hogs three to every horse, and nearly as many slaughtered within the year; cattle and sheep, each about one to each inhabitant. Farms and their products were estimated worth considerably less than six hundred millions, while factories and their output are almost one-third of that sum. The assessed value of town lots being over a hundred millions, the whole visible wealth is set down as eight hundred and seventy millions. The lumber crop was reckoned at twenty-seven millions of dollars, and that of beer at a third as much. With establishments turning out nine millions of beer annually, and with forty thousand and more majority of foreign voters, the prospect for prohibitory temperance legislation seems faint. A peculiar feature in the Wisconsin census is an enumeration of all the ex-soldiers and sailors who served during the late civil war and are now resident in the State. The number of these returned is almost thirty thousand (29,686). Some of them were discovered in each of all the sixty-seven counties. An appendix of 387 pages contains the names of all these veterans, with the postal address of each, also his rank, company, and regiment, and the name of the State or force in which each man was mustered. This is a roll of honor well worth preserving by the art preservative of all arts, and, owing to the polyglot character of Wisconsin citizens, the list furnishes such a mine for studies in patronomatology as cannot be easily paralleled.

—The second number of *Les Lettres et les Arts* (Paris: Bussod, Valadon et Cie.; Boston: C. Schoenhof) has appeared. Like its predecessor for January, this number shows the delicacy of the directing spirit of its editor, M. Anatole France. In lingering over its luxurious pages we feel that its writers have submitted to the influence of the *milieu* or of the editor or of both. There is in most of the articles a charming grace and lightness of touch to which their authors have not always accustomed us elsewhere, and, as it were, a subordination of the aggressive personality of each to the artistic harmony of the whole. Among these authors are the names of three Academicians, MM. Alexandre Dumas, François Coppée, and Maxime Du Camp, but the most attractive articles are by less famous men. M. Maurice Barrès, in his "Notes sur Paul Bourget," shows a power of appreciation and of critical insight, and a moderation and sobriety in the expression of his ardent admiration, that give a literary as well as a critical value to this essay, the most serious one in the number. It is accompanied and illustrated by a striking portrait of M. Paul Bourget, a face which will probably be a surprise to most of his readers, but, in the end, a most satisfying representation both to the eye and to the mind. A graceful and lively paper by a writer who is generally neither gay nor brilliant, M. Louis Ganderax, the serious theatrical critic of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, is entitled "À propos d'une aquarelle de Madame Madeleine Lemaire." The aquarelle is reproduced in a beautiful full-page illustration, and represents the comédienne, Mlle. Réjane, *en pierrot noir*. There is much delightful talk about the actress, given in a very charming way, and without a touch of that flippancy which in such writing so often takes the place of wit. M. Fernand Calmettes writes about what, when the present number was issued, was the approaching "Exposition des Aquarellistes." The paper is profusely illustrated with reproductions of the water colors exhibited, in the delicate tints and with the indescribable touches which convey so well the impression of the originals. The accompanying article is most attractively written, and is always as far as possible from recalling the diluted catalogue which such things usually are. Among the many beautiful aquarelles of the Exposition here reproduced, none is more charming than M. Guillaume Dubufe's "Illustration d'andante," which surrounds and blends into the music of Gounod's "Andante d'un quatuor," making in every way the two most exquisite pages of the book. The number opens with a very strange article by Alexandre Dumas, entitled "Une Volée de Paradoxes," and closes with the usual literary and theatrical notices, all in keeping with the general excellence of the *revue*. As an added luxury for the reader, a delicately ornamented movable cover of levant morocco is furnished to yearly subscribers, serving to enclose and protect the current number while in use.

—In the *Bibliothèque Universelle* of Geneva for January, Alphonse de Candolle gives an interesting abstract of Alexander Graham Bell's memoir, published by the National Academy of Sciences at Washington, on the production by selection in the United States of a race of deaf mutes—a publication which has naturally excited the particular attention of those who affect scientific studies in their relation to social well-being. De Candolle objects to the term *congenital* deafness, because the sense of hearing, as he thinks, is never manifested until some time after birth, and he is confident that most cases of infantile deafness are brought on by imprudent exposure of the new-born to cold. Under this view, he refers to the early baptism by immersion in the Russian Church as a most dangerous custom. He might also have instanced the very early baptisms in chilly churches of the Latin communion. As to correctives, he insists, with Bell, upon the exclusive adoption of the method of articulation. But he adds that the English language is one of the least favorable to this mode of teaching, being the one in which the vowels are the most indistinct and inarticulated, and in which the movements of the lips, so marked in French and still more in Italian, are largely replaced by accentuation or intonation, of which there is no outward visible sign. A distinguished deaf-mute acquaintance of his, who could read French and German discourse from the lips with almost complete facility, remarked that he probably might do the same with English if he could look into the throat, but not otherwise. We know in this country a fairly similar instance. Mr. Bell's suggestion for suppressing the nascent race of deaf mutes by prohibiting their intermarriage, De Candolle would extend to the marriage of all

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cousins-german; for he is convinced that consanguineous unions tend to propagate and develop other maladies and defects as well as the one in question. Moreover, he is of the opinion that the United States, of all countries, is the one in which such marriages may be most readily restrained by legal enactment, because its citizens are less dominated than in Europe by ideas of personal independence! To continue in his own words: "Nous voyons en effet les Américains fermer les yeux sur la liberté personelle quand il s'agit des Chinois, des buveurs d'eau-de-vie ou des Mormons, tandis que les Anglais et les Hollandais ne s'inquiètent dans leurs colonies ni des Célestes, ni des ivrognes, ni des millions de sujets polygames."

—German authors are perpetually airing their grievances, and insisting that respect be paid them, not as individuals, but in their professional capacity. They have two organs for their complaints, one of which, the *Deutsche Schriftsteller-Zeitung*, edited by Joseph Kürschner, who is laughed at by many of his contemporaries as a jack-at-all-trades, but who, even they have to admit, is successful, if not good, at all, appears to care for no readers except the authors themselves. The other is the *Magazin für die Litteratur*, which appeals to a wider public. We have previously quoted from this journal respecting the injury to the profession caused by circulating-libraries and the like—complaints which seemed to us absurd, not to say childish; hence we are the more pleased with an article in a late number by Carlos von Gagern, a writer who died the other day, after having seen a remarkably great deal of the world. He writes with a degree of common sense which, under the circumstances, is as surprising as it is refreshing. The profession of authorship, he remarks, is not, as is often asserted, a new or young profession; it is not a profession at all; it has never existed as such An author is something one must become, not by study or conscious intention, but, so to say, by accident. Moreover, authors are nearly always something else, and define themselves accordingly. Hence Von Gagern objects to the name "Authors' Union" for the society of German authors, and, more strongly, to the proposed fund for the relief of indigent members of that body, arguing that authors should provide for the results of illness or other misfortunes, like common folk, by means of the ordinary life-insurance companies. Another point in favor of his view, which he does not mention, but which seems to us important, is the extraordinary number of writers for the literary press in Germany, which, taken in connection with the extremely low scale of payment of all except popular novelists, indicates that authorship is there pursued for subjective rather than objective results. Writing appears to be as common as, say, piano playing, and its chief object to please the ear of the performer.

RECENT FICTION.

Valentino. By William Waldorf Astor. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Domesticus. By William Allen Butler. Charles Scribner's Sons.

A Conventional Bohemian. By Edmund Pendleton. D. Appleton & Co.

The Knave of Hearts. By Robert Grant. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

John Maidment. By Julian Sturgis. D. Appleton & Co.

Bonnyborough. By Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

High-lights. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

'VALENTINO' is described on the title-page as a romance. The author has misapprehended the meaning of the word. Romance, when written, implies the presence of imagination, and, though not in the same degree as a novel, of design developed coherently and with smooth consecutiveness. 'Valentino' is an assemblage of facts, creating no illusion by their arrangement and treatment, forming no picture to the mind, conveying no definite impression either of the meaning and effect of the incidents or of the character of the people engaged in the action. The failure of the author to produce a romance may be ascribed, perhaps, to a fundamental misconception of the kind of historical material from which a romance can possibly be produced. Rienzi may have been a charlatan, a demagogue, a *poseur*. He may have stirred the people by artful appeals to their vanity only, to the shadowy memory of Rome's past grandeur, cleverly ignoring their long and shameful supineness, sloth, and corruption. But he was essentially human, that is, his conspicuous characteristics were not of one nation, nor of one period, but of all time. Therefore his enthusiasms, his passions, and his failures afforded splendid food for the imagination of a man of another nationality and a later civilization. Cæsar Borgia, *il duca Valentinos*, Valentino, was the most profligate, depraved, and inhuman of a race and a period to which these attributes were peculiarly common. By the philosophical historian his character may be used as a typification of the political tendencies and methods of his age in England, France, and Spain, as well as in Italy. The manufacturer of the "penny-dreadful" may work him up with great success and profit. But the author of 'Valentino,' making no pretension to either of these functions, has simply gathered into a book his most striking adventures in war, with a slight recognition of his and his father's adventures in love. He has not only failed to invest the Borgias with an atmosphere of romance, but he has hurled a lance at those who have previously attempted it, an attempt splendidly successful because altogether of the "penny-dreadful" kind. His vindication of Lucretia does not, however, excite the hostility of a surprise. Most of us have already become reconciled to the loss of our old-time horror of her atrocities, letting it go along with our faith in William Tell's archery and "the sword that scarce an archangel could wield."

If Mr. Butler's 'Domesticus' is not literature, it has at least the air. It is an allegorical tale of New York, having for its direct motive the discussion and solution of the household-service difficulty. The composition is admirably correct, and the allegorical idea and style are sustained throughout to the most trifling forms of speech and descriptive phrase and word. Addison's style was marvellously correct and consistent, and the *Spectator* is literature. An analysis of almost any one of Lamb's essays will reveal erratic thought and pleasant little irregularities of grammar and construction. Yet these essays are better examples of pure literature than the *Spectator*. The lovable essayist was gloriously free from the moral nightmares which haunted Addison, infecting even his lightest work. Therefore it appears that though correctness and consistency of style may be important elements in the production of literature, they are not essential, while a too obvious moral intention is a hindrance to its perfection. Mr. Butler's desire to set people right about problems political and social as well as domestic, crops up everywhere, seriously impairing the beauty and interest of his work, and, in consequence, the enjoyment of the reader. The final picture of a whole family radiating the most advanced and ever progressing virtue is more apt to excite harmless mirth than recognition of our own wicked ways and resolution to mend them. Still, 'Domesticus' has claims upon our regard and admiration beyond those qualities of style to which we have referred. There are passages of quite poetical beauty, touches of lively satire, and vigorous opinions, notably on the theme "Domesticus Africanus," couched in language passionate without vehemence, genial without hypocrisy. Moreover, the author's manifest pleasure in narrating the ups and downs of his just and discreetly merciful "Little Lady" is infectious, if not to the point of compelling us to finish them at a sitting, at least enough to induce us to return to them again and again.

'A Conventional Bohemian' is also a first venture in fiction, and, no more than 'Valentino' or 'Domesticus,' bears the Grub Street stamp. It is a society novel, but the average society novel is many things which it is not. It is not a handbook of etiquette, nor a genealogical history of first families, nor would it find its real sphere of usefulness in the apartment of a lady who designs "robes et manteaux." It is a society novel because it has to do with those whose chief business is to "chase the glowing hours with flying feet," and whose consciousness is their Waterloo. Something of Mr. Butler's pleasure in his work is here discoverable, and the author's desire to say his say about the passions, emotions, follies, and foibles of a circumscribed portion of humanity not infrequently obscures his perception of the relation between character and opinion. But there is nothing quaint or allegorical in the method or style. It is all very direct and modern. It is as modern as the telephone and the mugwump and the dude. The only suggestion of the antique is in the leading lady. She, we are bluntly told, is introduced at the advanced age of thirty. On reflection, however, the selection of so mature a person for an important rôle appears to us as the most modern feature. It may be hailed as a blessed audacity, a sign that the European mind is about to be relieved from its distress about the prominence of the young girl in American life and fiction. Besides, the old girl has long suffered the neglect or contempt of novelists. She is between the *jeune fille* and the old maid. She never had the ingenuousness of the one; she never can have the inflexibility of the other. The moral severity common to both is impossible to her. If she had married young, she would still be "young Mrs. So-and-so." If she ever does marry, she is virtually the old girl still. So the old girl whom the conventional Bohemian, Villars, takes to illumine the domestic hearth, remains the reckless, whimsical, unscrupulous Angèle Wentworth. He realized, too late, that perhaps the only situation in life where the old girl cannot rally her forces and shine is by the domestic hearth. There is no good in trying to depict the old girl as a lovable person in life, or a person who, in fiction, can attract the sympathies of right-minded people. The author has not tried so to depict Angèle Wentworth. He has treated her without sentiment, and, indeed, throughout the book there is no vestige of sentimental consideration for popular notions about what is proper and beautiful in the characters of a novel. Except in the glibness of their talk, none of the people are literary figures. They are real. Angèle suffers most from an excessive flow of language, but all are infected with the malady. The quantity of frequently irrelevant talk weakens a really strong emotional drama and wearies the reader, not with its dulness, but its persistent, abnormal sparkle. It is in a way unnatural, too, if we insist that a novelist shall reproduce life, and not eliminate from among summer loungers the numbers of the dull and the commonplace. The movement is still further impeded by the author's lengthy analyses, explanations, and criticisms.

The bold, reckless nature of Angèle, with its substratum of passion and superstructure of

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cruel selfishness, the irresolution of Villars, always marring his best and more deeply degrading his worst; the calm perfection of Constance—all are made sufficiently evident by the behavior of the several individuals in both ordinary and exceptional circumstances. Even if they are not completely understood, it is more satisfactory to the reader to make his own interpretation, and better art in the author not to be prodigal of labels. But, on the whole, the novel is clever and entertaining. It is so singularly free from cant that it may be considered immoral by the multitude who still confound freedom from cant and hypocrisy with immorality. The faults are mostly technical. The author's range of thought, and perhaps of sympathy, has been limited by his horizon of observation; but, as far as the thought and the sympathy go, they are clear and warm. In the balance of judgment, the courage of opinion, the passion and conviction of some chapters, lies the promise of work of wider scope and more catholic application.

There is a frivolity that exhilarates and a frivolity that depresses more profoundly than meditations among the tombs. Of the first description the frivolity of 'The Knave of Hearts' is not. Undoubtedly the author meant to write an airy, pungent satire about the goings-on of the harmless Don Juan who roams the rocks at Mount Desert and leads every notable german the Continent over. Playful satire is a treacherous weapon, and the author is not the first whom it has discredited in the attempt to wield it. The situations in this production are a series of drawings from *Life*, without their occasional quick humor of idea and their clever execution. If anything can be more incomprehensible than the writing and publishing of such inanity, it is the author's reason for giving it an old-time flavor by the use and abuse of Latinisms; by such phrases as "in sooth," "of yore"; and by wording a letter, presumably written in 1823, in an approximation to the English of 1382. The style suggests that the author has looked over 'Rasselas' for his words; and, lest he should have overlooked Imlac's description of a mental state which seems to us to be that of the man who can perpetrate such a book as 'The Knave of Hearts,' we will quote it. It is that condition of "mere privation by which nothing can be produced; it is a vacuity in which the soul sits motionless and torpid for want of attraction."

Julian Sturgis's 'John Maidment,' judged by an absolute standard, is good; by comparison with most of modern fiction, it is great. It is an admirable piece of work, strong, dignified, calm—such work as becomes a man. It shows the author's power to pierce the heart, and his mastery of a fine method for exposing the core of things to a more obtuse world. Maidment of Balliol, the finest speaker that Oxford had heard during generations, is introduced in the flush of his youth and the glory of his last and greatest speech in the debating room of Oxford Union. Very soon we perceive that the splendid young theoretical avenger of injustice is going to damn himself out of his own mouth, by his own deeds, and yet remain unconscious as a baby of his innate baseness. We all have met his like and suspected him; yet so impressive is his exalted estimate of himself that a modest man will doubt his own intuition, question the correctness of his observation, often stifle his conviction through very shame of having criticised such glowing unselfishness and uprightness. He is a much more complicated and dangerous individual than the conscious-hypocrite trading on credulity. When invested with Maidment's intellectual brilliancy and personal charm, he is more harmful than a pestilence. Mr. Sturgis has not permitted Maidment to save himself by any moral grace. His work is artistically complete. He has approached it scientifically, and its completeness helps to prove that a good artistic creation implies the mastery of a scientific method. The finish of the minor characters is an essential part of the completeness. Though the author leaves Maidment still on the threshold of life, his task is quite finished. We know him thoroughly, and the record of a thousand defeats or triumphs could not add a grain to the fulness of our knowledge.

It is late in the day to comment upon the high spiritual flights and excursions into New England kitchens which are the principal elements of Mrs. Whitney's stories. The argument of 'Bonnyborough' is, that destiny hinges on one's baptismal name. And why should not a name be a power? the author questions. "It is given us solemnly, in the very moment that we are baptized into the name of the Lord. And the name of the Lord is his own revelation." To those who have taken a course of Mrs. Whitney, the statement of the argument carries conviction; others need only read 'Bonnyborough' to feel that if elaborate demonstration is proof, the hypothesis is proved irrefutably. If Peace-Polly and Doctor Comfort had been named respectively Jane and Thomas, they would certainly not have had the chance to quote Isaiah profusely in the moment of acknowledgment of their mutual passion, and it is just possible that an almost literal transcription of the Episcopal marriage service might never have adorned the last pages of a novel.

'High-lights,' which is said to be the work of Mrs. Whitney's daughter, is quite as pious as 'Bonnyborough' and much more intelligible. It is rather a pretty idyl, narrating how a neat-handed Phyllis, of rare domestic and intellectual accomplishments, ensnared the heart of a wandering knight of the pen and brush. It is very nice to know that intellectual giants on a holiday become as babes. The melancholy *Jaques* doing *Silvius* unbeknown would not offer a more refreshing spectacle. The sophisticated intelligence has some difficulty in accepting the probability of such transformation, but to the author of 'High-lights' it is evidently as natural, easy, and positive a process as breathing.

Ecclesiastical Institutions: being Part VI. of the Principles of Sociology. By Herbert Spencer. D. Appleton & Co. 1886.

Mr. Spencer's philosophy of religion starts from the premise—which most theologians will of course deny—that man has no innate religious ideas. Religious belief is a purely natural growth, the course of which can be traced from its germ in the mind of the savage to its latest stages as exhibited in the creed or scepticism of civilized man. He is even able to take a step beyond this, and indicate the probable future of religion.

All religion, then, Mr. Spencer traces back to the belief in ghosts. It is the fancy of a double existence which suggests the notion of agencies transcending experience. The other self supposed by primitive mankind to wander in dreams, the double which is imagined to survive at death, "is simply the original man, with some added powers of going about secretly and doing good and evil." These earliest supernatural agents are conceived as having but temporary existences, and they are supposed in the end to die like the natural persons whose representatives they are. Thus, the Unkulunkulu, or Old-Old One of the Zulus, is regarded as absolutely dead, and consequently past praying to. But where circumstances lead to repetition of sacrifices, kept up from generation to generation, there is eventually generated the belief in a permanently existing spirit. These increase in number, and "there is a strengthening tendency to think of them as everywhere around and as causing all unusual occurrences." Ordinary ghosts are propitiated by their descendants, but other spirits are introduced into the pantheon for prudential reasons—*e. g.*, those of dreaded individuals whom it may be desirable to propitiate. There come to be also local gods, good and evil spirits, gods reigning over this or that order of phenomena.

The attributes of these gods are derived entirely from human experiences: they eat, drink, sleep, fight, are wounded, suffer pain, are angry, jealous, or envious, just as men are. With advancing civilization, however, there is a gradual dematerialization and improvement of the idea of deity. The god ceases to be tangible; later he ceases to be visible or audible, his intelligence grows stronger, he is not conceived as making mistakes and repenting; his gross passions, originally among his most admired attributes, gradually fade away, leaving only those which the better part of mankind are inclined to regard with approval. Finally we reach the conception of a single God, of unlimited power and wisdom and benevolence, who does not, however, directly reveal himself to man by manifestations of his power, except under special circumstances and at very rare intervals.

Such having been the history of religion, what is to be its future? As cruelty is one of the human attributes always attributed to God in primitive times, so, through the process of "deanthropomorphization," this must be taken completely away, and consequently all belief in hell and damnation will disappear. So, too, will the notion that the Deity has a "craving for praise," and will be angry if prayers are not offered. But we must go beyond this. "A consciousness constituted of ideas and feelings caused by objects and occurrences cannot be simultaneously occupied with all objects and all occurrences throughout the universe"; consequently, we cannot conceive of God as having emotions, and there are difficulties just as great in conceiving him as having intelligence or will. Thus we shall be compelled to drop "the higher anthropomorphic characters given to the First Cause," as we have long since dropped the lower, and, having attained the conception of a God without any human qualities, we find that "it becomes a consciousness which transcends the forms of distinct thought, though it for ever remains as consciousness."

But now we are brought face to face with a difficulty of a very serious character;

"How can such a final consciousness of the Unknowable, thus tacitly alleged to be true, be reached by successive modifications of a conception which was utterly untrue? The ghost theory of the savage is baseless. The material double of a dead man in which he believes, never had any existence. And if by gradual dematerialization of this double was produced the conception of the supernatural agent in general; if the conception of a deity formed by the dropping of some human attributes and transfiguration of others resulted from continuance of this process, is not the developed and purified conception, reached by pushing the process to its limit, a fiction also? Surely, if the primitive belief was absolutely false, all derived beliefs must be absolutely false."

Mr. Spencer's answer to this question, he warns his readers, will prove to most of them unexpected. It is that at the outset a germ of truth was contained in the primitive conception—the truth that the power which manifests itself in consciousness is but a differently conditioned form of the power which manifests itself beyond consciousness. To most readers this would seem to point to a refined Pantheism as the future religion of thinking men, but Mr. Spencer is not a Pantheist. He seems to conceive of religious belief as it exists transformed into a kind of en-

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lightened wonder at the incomprehensibility of the whole subject; "and this feeling is not likely to be decreased but to be increased by that analysis of knowledge which, while forcing him to Agnosticism, yet continually prompts him to imagine some solution of the great enigma which he knows cannot be solved."

If such is the future of belief, what is to be that of religious observance? Mr. Spencer has an answer for this question also in another chapter. In the first place, "all observance implying the thought of propitiation (*i. e.*, all prayer) may be expected to lapse." On the other hand, the teaching of correct rules as to the conduct of life will become a more and more important branch of the service, while "musical expression" will be given to the feeling which is to supplant the old dogmatic beliefs. An objector might say that there is no evidence of any tendency of this kind at present. In all the churches of our day there is as strong a tendency towards the strengthening of ritual as there is a weakening of dogmatic belief, and the sermon as an instrument of ethical teaching is surely not in its prime, but in its decadence. Music is undoubtedly growing in favor; but it is music connected with the adoration of a not wholly deanthropomorphized God. Mr. Spencer's speculations up to the point of his declared agnosticism we can understand; but granted agnosticism as an accepted creed, we can see no future for religion. Christianity, certainly, was built up by men who believed in its dogmas; the Religion of the Future will have to be built up by means of belief of some kind, or it will be something very different from what men have hitherto called religion. The answer to the difficulty which Mr. Spencer very fairly states is still to be given. If the religions of the past were founded in delusion, and God is the product of delusion, or at any rate of thinking we know something of which we know nothing, why is not religion itself a delusion? What is the "germ of truth" which makes the product of all this delusion the highest truth of all? In fact, what is Truth? But the answer to this question is contained in other portions of Mr. Spencer's philosophy.

Handbuch des Oeffentlichen Rechts der Gegenwart, in Monographien. Herausgegeben von Dr. Heinrich Marquardsen, Professor in Erlangen. *Amerika*, bearbeitet von Dr. H. von Holst. Freiburg i. B.: J. E. B. Mohr. 1885.

MARQUARDSEN'S 'Handbook of Public Law' is a work of encyclopædic character, such as Germany produces in great number and excellence. It is in form a large octavo, and is planned to cover the entire field of contemporary constitutional law. It is divided into half-volumes, the first two of which are of general nature, the next four—vols. ii. and iii.—being devoted to Germany, each of the independent States of Germany, large and small, being the subject of a separate treatise. Of these three volumes vol. ii. is now complete, also the first half of vol. i. and the second half of vol. iii. Vol. iv., completing the work, is devoted to the constitutions of other countries. Of this, however, only a very small portion is as yet completed—Austria by Albrich, the United States by Von Holst, and Great Britain (with dependencies) by Marquardsen. The division before us is the third *Abtheilung* of the first *Halbband* of vol. iv., and contains 189 pages.

The laborious and systematic Germans appear to be taking out of the hands of us more superficial Anglo-Saxons the philosophical study of our own Constitutions, and Dr. von Holst promises to do for the United States what Gneist has done for England, and to provide us with a more thorough and complete account of our Constitution and its history than any American has yet found time and courage to undertake. His point of view and method of treatment are more distinctly historical than those of the Berlin professor; the work before us—his systematic treatise—is, as it were, but a trifling diversion from the solid historical work upon which he has been engaged for so many years, and makes a very small show by the side of Gneist's ponderous and exhaustive volumes. Nevertheless it is enough for its purpose. However great, for the purpose of detailed study, may be the value of elaborate treatises on constitutional law, there are few classes of work more dreary and profitless for general readers. The brilliant and accurate generalizations of Bagehot, contained in a small duodecimo, give a more intelligible notion of the English Constitution as a living and working organization than any amount of minute analysis. So with Von Holst's book. It is not at all like Bagehot's in its treatment; but it reminds one of it in this, that it treats our Constitution and Government as active forces rather than as a formal set of rules.

This characteristic of the work is well illustrated by the section upon "the three departments" (p. 38). It has been the fashion of late to undervalue this characteristic feature of the American Constitution. It is easy to see that no such independence of departments as the early disciples of Montesquieu contended for is possible; and—largely under the influence of Bagehot and the theory of the English Constitution—there has been a tendency to consider this independence as one of the weak points, and, in fact, a fatal defect of our system. We turned to this section of Von Holst's treatise with special interest, and were not disappointed in finding a view which appears to us to preserve what is essential in the earlier theory, and to add to it that vitality and practical character in which it had been found deficient. He quotes Pomeroy to the effect that the departments are in no sense independent of one another; and the 'Federalist,' as saying that each has a constitutional control over the others; and then adds:

"Since, by the organization of the Government, each department has received a constitutional control over the two others, it stands to reason that in the exercise of this control there can be no superiority or inferiority [*Ueber- und Unterordnung*]. On the other hand, it is a fundamental principle of constitutional law that the three factors of Government are placed on a complete equality with one another [*vollkommen gleichgeordnet*]. Placed on an equality, but not perhaps possessed of equal powers [*gleichmächtig*]. In this respect the Constitution has set them on an entirely different footing, and the distinction thus made has even been materially enhanced by the actual development of relations."

This leads him to discuss the claims made repeatedly by Congress, and once by the President (Jackson), for a superiority of their respective departments over the others, ending with the profound remark that the department "upon which regularly devolves the final interpretation, has in the first place received the greatest possible stability, and in the next place has been completely withdrawn from any immediate influence upon its composition on the part of the people."

Equally satisfactory is the discussion of the subject of State sovereignty. We have thought, from some expressions in his History, that Professor von Holst leaned over-much in the direction of centralization, and underrated the share of the States as integral parts of the national organism. If we have been right in this suspicion—and we have not been able to find the passages which suggested it—we find no trace of this view in the discussion before us, which recognizes the constitutional rights of the States in the heartiest and completest manner. The discussion in question, which begins on page 23, is a masterly one, and in it the relation of nation and States receives the clearest possible and, as we think, the most correct statement.

The principal part of the work is, as is natural, concerned with the National Constitution and Government. Part iii. (Part i. being introductory) treats of the constitutional law of the States in thirty pages, and of the institutions of self-government in about ten more. These chapters will be found very valuable. The Constitutions of our several States are not easy to study and to compare, though it is from a study and comparison of them that the tendencies of American constitutional law are most easily discovered; for the extreme difficulty—amounting to a practical impossibility—of effecting amendments in our national Constitution has given a great development to what may be called the unwritten Constitution, while in the States, on the other hand, the organic law is so readily and frequently amended that every passing phase of popular opinion finds expression in some Constitutional provision. The sections upon the institutions of self-government touch upon a more familiar subject—thanks to the Johns Hopkins Studies—and here the most valuable part is perhaps that which treats of the cities, the most vulnerable part of our political system. The relation of the towns and counties to one another, and to popular self-government—a subject not well understood even in America—is rather inadequately treated.

There is a good index, but—strange omission—no copy of the Constitution itself.

Suicide dans l'Antiquité et dans les Temps Modernes. Par Gaston Garrisson, docteur en droit, etc., etc. [Librairie nouvelle de droit et de jurisprudence.] Paris: Arthur Rousseau. 1885. 8vo, pp. 280.

THIS serious and to some extent scholarly study of the historical conditions of suicide, of the development of "that malady of humanity," has for its object "the exact definition of the nature and causes of suicide, and the designation of the remedy, if there be one, which should be applied to it." The profound interest which is touched by all such investigations may perhaps give pertinence also to a résumé of the contents of this volume, and to a few comments upon it.

The opening pages are a hasty sketch of the attitude of early times with regard to this form of homicide, in the course of which M. Garrisson speaks of its condemnation by the laws of Moses. But the injunction in the Decalogue, "Thou shalt not kill," is the sole expression in "the laws of Moses" of what has been metamorphosed by the Church into a condemnation of suicide, regardless of the far stronger emphasis to be laid on it in relation to war and capital punishment. There is not in the whole Bible (whatever Shakspere thought was to be found there) any "canon" against "self-slaughter," or any one condemnatory phrase in the many narrations contained in it of suicidal deaths. M. Garrisson again mistakes, in the opposite direction, when, in a later page, he says that the Bible calls the suicide of Razis (II Maccabees) "a noble action," and in thinking, apparently, that it was a voluntary escape from wrong-doing.

After speaking of the condemnation of suicide by "the laws of Moses" and by the Vedas, and later by Mahomet, its permission and more than permission to old persons by the laws of Manu, and as a form of sacrifice by (the followers of) Vishnu, and as release from dishonor in China and Japan, M. Garrisson as hastily touches on the famous suicides of Asia, Africa, Egypt, Carthage, and Greece. He dwells a little on the repressive laws of Athens, Thebes, and Sparta, while mentioning that at Athens suicide was permitted by authority if the Areopagus approved the motives of it; and he refers (without giving

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his authority) to the statement of Valerius Maximus that at Marseilles, when a Greek colony, hemlock was prepared at the public expense for those whose desire to hasten their end was approved by the Senate.

He then notes, still hastily, the opposition to suicide of Socrates and Aristotle, and Plato's contrary favorable view of it—in certain determinate cases—a view maintained later by the Stoics, who formulated their principles in the proposition that suicide was permissible in these five cases: 1. Propter magnam necessitatem: great compulsion. 2. Propter pudorem: sense of honor. 3. Propter delirium animi: insanity. 4. Propter insanabilis corporis morbos: incurable bodily disease. 5. Propter paupertatem: poverty. After a few sentences regarding the sects of the Cyrenaics, the Cynics, and the Pyrrhonians, not touching, strangely, on the Epicureans, M. Garrisson enters more at length into the subject as connected with the Romans and Roman law before the Empire and under the emperors, and more especially in the time of Justinian.

The causes which in the Pandects of Justinian were held to render suicide legitimate were eight: 1. Disgust at life (tædium vitæ); 2. Incurable physical suffering; 3. The death of one beloved; 4. The shame of an unpayable debt; 5. Desire for distinction; 6. Insanity; 7. Idiocy; 8. Outraged honor (of women). All other suicides were punishable by the deprivation of funeral rights and the forfeiture of the property of the individual. But it is difficult to see what others were likely to occur; remorse, almost the only suicidal emotion not classifiable under these heads, ranking even now, and still less then, not as a frequent motive. The Roman legislation concerning suicide thus practically declared every free man at liberty to die—every man except soldiers and slaves and those under accusation of crimes, whose self-inflicted deaths were held to infringe public and private rights; to them, consequently, suicide was entirely forbidden.

This assumption—of a man's life being due to others—which only in part pervaded Roman law, became the principal point of view, and all-powerful in Canon law, and from both these sources the modern legislation of all nations has been deeply tinged and influenced, and the public opinion of all peoples. The murder of one's self came long ago to be regarded as akin to the murder of another. It is an illustration how completely similar conceptions are now born in our blood that we find a declaimer of popular beliefs, Edmond About, in his volume entitled 'Le Progrès,' asserting that "gratitude [to the social organization to which we belong] should itself alone forbid it" (suicide), and adding that till the age of twenty-seven (!) a man does not belong to himself in consequence of his indebtedness to society for the benefits bestowed on him.

M. Garrisson passes on from Roman law through Canon law to the Droit Coutumier, exhibiting thus more especially the legal customs of his own land; and so, reaching present times, he turns from the records of legislation to the records of statistics of suicide throughout Europe in late years. It is only too well known that these statistics show a steady increase of this "malady"—M. Garrisson believes the homicide of one's self always to be that. He therefore naturally completes his work of investigation by considering it in its aspects of contagion and inheritance. And after all this research what are his conclusions? In passing judgment on those who kill themselves *en pleine connaissance de cause*, he sets aside all question of the so-to-speak legitimate right of men to suicide, and also of their duty toward God in this matter, and asks merely if we have a moral right to break the ties that connect us with society. He accepts the answer of M. About, that *gratitude* should hold our hand; at least, apparently, that a man should never kill himself till after he is twenty-seven.

But many wise men, with a true passion for moral perfection, and a noble fear of moral deterioration, have felt not only that piteous circumstances of helpless and hopeless suffering, sorrow, insanity, and poverty justified suicide, but have held that "a man of equanimity and magnanimity, good, modest, true, and rational," if he found himself losing his grasp of the virtues dear to him, should "go courageously into some nook where he can maintain them, or even depart at once from life, not in passion, but with simplicity, and freedom, and modesty, after doing this one [laudable] thing in life, to have gone out of it thus." And Marcus Aurelius, who thus believed, had as high a conception as ever man had of our relations to society; since he was convinced that felicity was to be found only "in passing from one social act to another social act, thinking of God."

If we look at this subject from still another point of view, it will be seen that the death of each of us is simply a matter of sooner or later, of before or after the deaths of others; it is inevitable; it may, in the course of nature, occur at any moment; it is an event that has no likeness to those wrong-doings of men which might *not be*, and which shatter and torture and mutilate the existences around them. Is it, then, certain that we can rightly assume that we are not bound to exercise our judgment with regard to the length of our lives, as well as about the course of our lives? Is it certain that we are judicious when we believe with M. Garrisson that the desire to shorten our lives is always insanity? Can such a desire never arise from tenderness toward others, to spare them the most mournful and exhausting of burdens, and to diminish the sum of sorrow in the world and of unavailing effort?

These are questions every man should answer for himself, not accepting any decrees which do not appeal to his own reason. Meantime every man would join with the author before us in the wish to diminish the causes of suicide; but we doubt whether many would agree with him that "the sole efficacious means . . . is to render the condition of men easier." The facts do not appear to confirm this view. The condition of the masses becomes "easier" with every generation; the ratio of suicides is steadily increasing; and M. Garrisson himself quotes with agreement the assertion of a writer (Esquirol), who says, "The more civilization develops, the more do needs increase, . . . and the more suicides must there be." It is evident, therefore, that we must define first what "easy conditions" are, before we can proceed to produce them for our fellow-creatures.

M. Garrisson's last words are a quotation from Beccaria concerning crime, here applied to suicide: "Pour combattre le suicide, que la liberté marche éclairée du flambeau de la science." Let us turn rather to the eloquent passage of Rousseau, one of the so-called "apologists" of suicide: "Every time that thou art tempted to depart from life, say within thyself, 'Let me do one more good deed before I die.' Then seek some one in poverty to succor, some one in misfortune to console, some one in oppression to defend. . . . If this consideration keep thee living to-day, it will do so to-morrow, and the next day, and all thy life." Let us also remember, not so much for ourselves as for others, in thinking of the choice of life or death, the words of Seneca (another apologist) quoted by Montaigne (another yet): "I have forced myself to live, and merely to live is sometimes magnanimity."

Upland and Meadow: a Poaetquissings Chronicle. By Charles C. Abbott, M.D. Pp. x, 397, 8vo. Harpers. 1886.

POAETQUISSINGS is an ancient name for a little creek near by which Dr. Abbott resides, and his chronicle relates to the birds, fishes, insects, and other animals whose habits and manners he has minutely observed and entertainingly recorded. The flowers, birds, and animals of midwinter afford him an interesting chapter. The ways of redbirds, wrens, and grakles, of the spade-footed toad, the opossum, mink, and 'coon, are lovingly dwelt upon and enthusiastically described. The multitudinous contents of a fisherman's seine afford a basis for a dissertation on the water insects and those little fishes which often become their prey. The chapters on a summer at home, September sunshine, and an October diary, carry the reader well through the incidents of a country year devoted to the study of wood and field life. Dr. Abbott is a keen and appreciative observer; that in watching the flying and creeping things of upland and meadow he is in his most congenial element, is obvious on every page. He sometimes reminds us of that notable person whose "foible was omniscience." It is sometimes quite evident that he is too prone to generalize, and that his enthusiasm saturates its object, in some cases, with thoughts, ideas, and emotions foreign to its intrinsic nature. But this, while a fault, considered from the standpoint of an exact biographer of animated nature, is, from another point of view, not to be too harshly condemned. There is no doubt that, in general, both the naturalist and the layman are more apt to underrate the intelligence of birds, wild animals, and insects than to overrate it. This has its apparent exceptions in those forms which are useful to man, and are therefore brought most closely under his observation, such as bees, poultry, and domestic animals. But if in some of these the tendency is in the opposite direction, and such a relatively stupid and small-brained animal as the horse has thus been exalted far above his natural position in the scale of intelligence, it may help to equalize matters when observers like Abbott take up the cudgels on behalf of the spiders, the bats, and the garter-snakes. Every bright, active boy will find new use for his eyes and ears on summer vacations; the closet student will be stimulated to verify his faith or intrench his disbelief by wider field experience—even by the very errors, if such there be, of this book and others like it. Taken in chapters, the general reader will, we think, find Dr. Abbott's chronicle refreshing—perhaps not the less so from the absence of any noticeable literary quality such as, in John Burroughs's essays, delights and yet divert us from the natural world it would unveil.

Studia Biblica: Essays in Biblical Archæology and Criticism and Kindred Subjects by Members of the University of Oxford. Oxford: the Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1885.

THE few words which preface this work explain that the essays which it contains were mostly read before a University Society which regularly met for the purpose of discussing papers on Biblical Archæology and Criticism. While not intending to publish a journal, the announcement is made that should this volume be favorably received, the series will be continued as the material is gathered. The essays, of course, vary in interest, in importance, and in value. Some of them are based on original work, while others are professedly reports upon the work of other (generally German) scholars.

The first is by Dr. S. R. Driver, on "Recent Theories on the Origin and Nature of the Tetragrammaton." He gives Friedrich Delitzsch's

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theory that Yah and Yahu, instead of being shortened forms of Yahveh, as is generally assumed, were really the current and popular names of God, and that Yahveh was constructed upon them according to the expression found in Exodus iii, 14. Yahu (not Yaveh) Professor Delitzsch takes back to Assyrian *Ya-u*, who was, in the pantheon of the non-Semitic aborigines of Babylon (the Akkadians) *I*, the supreme God. The next important theory is found in an article by F. A. Philippi in the *Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie*. This writer contended that Delitzsch had failed to make out his case, that Yahveh was the more original form (instancing its occurrence in the famous inscription of King Mesha); that, admitting an Assyrian *Yau*, it would be difficult to derive Yahweh from it, and impossible to get Assyrian *Yau* from Akkadian *I*. Professor Sayce, naturally at the present moment, thinks it to be of Hittite origin. Dr. Driver emphasizes the fact that none of these theories are objectionable on theological grounds, because they all recognize that Yahweh is of Jewish origin, and, even if built upon *Yah* or *Yahu*, received an entirely new signification. The essay concludes with the statement that "no ground appears at present to exist for questioning either the purely Israelitish origin of the Tetragrammaton, or the explanation of its meaning which is given in Exodus iii, 14."

The third essay, by Ad. Neubauer, is on a subject always full of interest, the "Dialects spoken in Palestine in the time of Christ." The older scholars thought that Alexander and his successors had caused the Greek language and literature to spread so completely throughout Asia that the Hebrew had not escaped the fate of the other Asiatic language. The moderns, like Renan and Franz Delitzsch, take the position that the language spoken was still a kind of Hebrew. Neubauer holds in the main with these, and, after a mass of interesting and acute discussion, he concludes that if the New Testament were to be restored to its original form, the Hebrew dialect to which it should be most nearly approximated would be that of the Jerusalem Talmud.

Essay Number VI, by W. Sanday, is an account of the Text of the so-called Codex Rossanensis, a newly-discovered sixth-century text of the New Testament found in Rossano in 1881. Only an incomplete examination of it has been made, the chapter at Rossano refusing all permission to scholars to study it as soon as they discovered its value. It in a great measure supports the traditional text.

Number IX, a very careful paper by Mr. T. Randell, is on the date of St. Polycarp's martyrdom. This date has ranged all the way from 147 to 175, but Mr. Randell attempts to fix it in the spring of 155.

The Story of the Heavens. By Robert Stawell Ball, LL.D. With colored plates and numerous illustrations. Cassell & Co. 1885.

THIS is a capital book, but not without its faults. A marked diffuseness is in several instances particularly unfortunate, needlessly taking the reader on rambling excursions before he is allowed to reach the objective point. However adapted it may be to British needs, the volume is too bulky for the general American reader, and fully a quarter of it might with advantage be expunged, and that, too, without damage to the rhetoric. Printer's errors are not numerous, yet the book bears evidence of having been hurried through the press.

Dr. Ball writes with the hand of a master, and his book is an exceedingly attractive exposition of the astronomy of to-day—the best popular English treatise, in fact, if one can spare the time to read it all. The story of Neptune's discovery has never been better told, nor more fairly; while the chapters on shooting-stars and comets, stellar distances, the tides, and the astronomical significance of heat, are in every way excellent. Dr. Ball is ready to acknowledge in detail his indebtedness for numerous illustrations, but he has nothing to say about a work of like character with his own, well known in Great Britain and better known in America, Professor Newcomb's 'Popular Astronomy,' published by the Harpers in 1878, which has afforded him an occasional suggestion. We parallel two passages:

BALL (p. 9).

". . . Tycho Brahe, who was born in 1546, three years after the death of Copernicus. His attention seems first to have been directed to astronomy by the eclipse of the sun which occurred on the 21st August, 1560. It amazed his reflective spirit to find that so surprising a phenomenon admitted of actual prediction, and he determined to devote his life to the study of a science possessed of such wonderful precision. In the year 1576 the King of Denmark had established Tycho Brahe on the island of Huen, and had furnished him with the splendid observatory of Uraniberg. It was here that Tycho assiduously observed the places of the heavenly bodies for some twenty years," etc.

NEWCOMB (p. 66).

". . . Tycho Brahe, who was born in 1546, three years after the death of Copernicus. His attention was first directed to the study of astronomy by an eclipse of the sun on August 21st, 1560, which was total in some parts of Europe. Astonished that such a phenomenon could be predicted, he devoted himself to a study of the methods of observation and calculation by which the prediction was made. In 1576 the King of Denmark founded the celebrated Observatory of Uraniberg, at which Tycho spent twenty years, assiduously engaged in observations of the positions of the heavenly bodies," etc.

BALL (p. 393).

"In February, 1862, Messrs. Alvan Clark & Sons, the celebrated telescope makers, were completing a superb 18-inch object-glass for the Chicago Observatory. Turning the instrument on Sirius, for the purpose of trying it, the practised eye of the younger Clark soon detected something unusual, and he exclaimed, 'Why, father, the star has a companion!' The father looked, and there was a faint companion due east from the bright star, and distant about ten seconds. This was exactly the predicted direction of the companion of Sirius, and yet the observers knew nothing of the prediction. As the news of this discovery spread, many great telescopes were pointed on Sirius; and it was found that when observers knew exactly where to look for the object, many instruments would show it. The new companion star to Sirius lay in the true direction, and it was now watched with the keenest interest, to see whether it also was moving in the way it should move, if it were really the body whose existence had been foretold. Four years of observation showed that this was the case, so that hardly any doubt could remain that the telescopic discovery had been made of the star which had caused the inequality in the motion of Sirius. The correspondence between the observed motions and the predicted motions has not since proved quite exact; for the observed companion appears to have moved about half a degree per annum more rapidly than the calculated companion. This difference, though larger than was expected, may be partly due to the inevitable errors of the difficult observations from which the movements of the theoretical companion were computed."

NEWCOMB (p. 439).

". . . February, 1862, when Messrs. Alvan Clark & Sons, of Cambridgeport, were completing their eighteen-inch glass for the Chicago Observatory. Turning the glass one evening on Sirius, for the purpose of trying it, the practised eye of the younger Clark soon detected something unusual. 'Why, father,' he exclaimed, 'the star has a companion!' The father looked, and there was a faint companion due east from the bright star, and distant about 10". This was exactly the predicted direction for that time, though the discoverers knew nothing of it. As the news went round the world, all the great telescopes were pointed on Sirius, and it was now found that when observers knew where the companion was, many telescopes would show it. It lay in the exact direction which theory had predicted for that time, and it was now observed with the greatest interest, in order to see whether it was moving in the direction of the theoretical satellite. Four years' observation showed that this was really the case, so that hardly any doubt could remain that this almost invisible object was really the body which, by its attraction and revolution around Sirius, had caused the inequality in its motion. At the same time, the correspondence has not since proved exact, the observed companion having moved about half a degree per annum more rapidly than the theoretical one. This difference, though larger than was expected, is probably due to the inevitable errors of the very delicate and difficult observations from which the movements of the theoretical companion were computed."

We forbear further criticism: the downright sinfulness of this sort of thing is perhaps small; but if all such passages had been closed with marks of quotation, nobody could have thought the less of 'The Story of the Heavens,' and everybody, surely, would have thought more of Dr. Ball.

Royalty Restored: or, London Under Charles II. By J. Fitzgerald Molloy, with an etching of Charles II. by J. Grego, and eleven other portraits. In 2 vols. Scribner & Welford.

THE fascination that traditionally pertains to evil things has certainly kept bright the memory of the Merry Monarch. The virtuous William is a pale figure beside the amiable youth whose return to Whitehall was attended by so much revelry in town and court, and whose services to his country consisted largely in providing it with an aristocracy presumably sprung from his own loins. Indeed, the age of Charles II. was one of those in which the fascination of evil is brought to so brilliant a focus that it almost adorns history. Such, at least, would seem to be the opinion of the compiler of these two handsome volumes, from whose portraits all that was most beautiful and most dangerous in that fallen Eden looks out upon the reader, and in whose pages are gathered all the gay adventures of the quarter century of the reign which was the first to be prolific in that illegitimate literature, as it must be thought, of private diaries. Politics have been practically ignored by the writer, but a connected story is made up very deftly by accounts of parades, suppers, and receptions, characterizations and short sketches of the principal figures of the court, each of whom was the hero of many an intrigue, and extracts from the common sources of the history of the Caroline scandals. Larger features, though not more dwelt on and extended, are the plague, the fire, and the Popish plot, which were altogether too useful as material to be neglected, and have a certain relevancy as convenient centres about which to display the life of the town. The whole forms a very complete history of the life of London from the standpoint of royalty in the Restoration, and the work has been, in a literary sense, well done.

It is needless to say that the effect is that of a pretty comedy, for in this handling of the subject vice certainly has lost its grossness. Much of it is well known from Grammont and others, but here, as Byron says, the reader has the felicity of obtaining the age's naughtiness "at one fell swoop." The court, however, was not altogether depraved; there was innocence even there, and the figure of the much tried Queen, who had such "need of patience," is as bright as Shakspere's famous candle that sends its rays so far into the night. The romp of the maids of honor as orange girls in their visit to the astrologer, himself no other than the mountebank Rochester, and the notorious Colonel Blood's capture of Arundel, and that heartless duel of Shrewsbury's, and that most pathetic one of Tom Porter's; Sedley's town frolic, Pepys's prying eyes and the sights that rewarded them—everything of note is here, even to the story of Lady Chesterfield's green stockings, which in the humor of hosiery is almost a match for that of *Malvolio's* unfortunate dandyism. It is all high-life, it is true, such as Thackeray alone could make moral, or Scott healthy; the seeds of death were in it, and England got rid of it, though only to know a grosser age with the Georges. Of the people, which, growing up in labor and Puritan dissent, was at last to remand it to secrecy if not to slough it out of the social system, these volumes say little. The author is not concerned with the character of the times or the tendencies of his own celebration of them. He has portrayed them only. But it does not need this new example to show us how often nowadays the necessary toleration of history is made the cover of a scandalous chronicle.

Physical Arithmetic. By A. Macfarlane, M. A., D. Sc., F. R. S. E. Macmillan. Pp. 357.

PROFESSOR MACFARLANE has had the excellent idea of collecting in one book of convenient size the arithmetical processes involved in the physical sciences. It is not to be considered as a text-book of arithmetic to be studied without knowing anything about physics—nothing could be more fatal

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to the difficult task of forming clear and correct physical concepts than to use it in that way. But as a companion to laboratory work and good instruction, and as a compendium of the mathematics involved in a non-mathematical course of physics, it will be found to be of great value.

Professor Macfarlane's familiarity with symbolic logic has enabled him to give a particularly happy setting to the general arithmetical problem. His equations may be considered as a cross between the equations of pure mathematics and the equations of logic. The question, in a great part of the work in arithmetic, is whether a given number is to enter the work as a multiplier or as a divisor, and the question has a connection with the logical problem of the elimination of a middle term. If the A's are M, the M's are N, the N's are P, and the P's are X, it follows that the A's are X. Professor Macfarlane's one rule which covers the ground of his whole book (but which is to be mixed, it is true, with a good proportion of brains) is in effect this: Arrange the units which occur twice so that they appear once as subject and once as predicate; then cancel, and an equation results between the two units which have appeared once only. For instance, if

120 cents = 4 dozen eggs,
3 dozen eggs = 2 lbs. butter,
5 lbs. butter = 75 pts. milk,

then

$$1 \text{ cent} = \frac{4.\ 2.\ 75}{120.\ 3.\ 5} = \frac{1}{3} \text{ pt. milk};$$

and similarly with volts, and ohms, and amperes, and chemical equivalents. The plan has the advantages and the disadvantages of a "method"—the student is in danger of working by rule of thumb instead of by pure head; but if he is destined to do enough work to become expert at it, he is saved a good deal of head for other and more difficult purposes. The same remarks apply to a memorized multiplication table and to symbolic logic. There is a large collection of examples, partly selected from recent examination papers and partly prepared by the author.

Professor Macfarlane has left the University of Edinburgh to become professor of physics in the University of Texas. The latter University bids fair to become a centre of learning. It contributes a paper to the current number of the *American Journal of Mathematics*.

Frank's Ranche; or, My Holiday in the Rockies. Being a contribution to the inquiry into what we are to do with our boys. By the author of 'An Amateur Angler's Days in Dovedale.' Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1886.

THE attraction of this little work is due to its great simplicity and directness. It appears that its author (a well-known English publisher) had a boy who preferred to try his fortunes in American agriculture to being pinned to a city desk, and hence came over. He learned enough of a Minnesota farmer in a few months to think he understood the art, and bought a farm, with the aid of his father's purse; and, not succeeding in this venture, he turned the capital into a creamery, in which it disappeared. The boy (whose partner, we are told, made a paying business of "the milk idea" after he got the sole ownership of the plant) went West, and "roughed it" near Bozeman, Montana. The father by this time had concluded to let "Frank" make his fortune by himself, and "Frank" took hold of his task with cheerfulness and pluck. The letters from "Frank," which are given in the first part of the book, are by far the most interesting portion. He had a hard time of it, and his endurance, resolution, and the buoyancy of his hopes in the most dismal circumstances, stand out in his free and straightforward narrative with delightful unconsciousness. So fresh a nature is not often met with in books, and in this is the charm of the whole; those who think no boy can "rough it" in the West without being "spoilt," can read to advantage.

The second portion consists of the account of the father's journey to see his son and judge for himself of his prospects. "Frank" had got a piece of ground and a cabin and "a few things together" by the hardest of real toil, and perhaps the purse-strings might be loosened once more. The journey tells of the voyage, the Catskills, Saratoga, Niagara, the Yellowstone, and the "Ranche," with a few notes of the return by Helena, Salt Lake, Cheyenne, and Boston. These sketches are interesting light reading, and breathe a spirit of appreciation for things American which is at once spontaneous and unbroken, and, in an Englishman of sixty years, is marvellous. It is pleasant to know that "Frank" did increase his real, and possibly his personal, estate by this visit of "the Governor." From the title-page one infers that the author advises other parents to do as he has done; but it would be well for the "boy" who is to go out, also to read the account of what "Frank" had to do, and to reflect well whether he has got the fibre and the spirit for such a severe apprenticeship to fortune.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Law Review. Vol. XIX. St. Louis: Review Publishing Co.
Anderson, E. L. Vice in the Horse, and Other Papers on Horses and Riding. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Brooks, Louise. A Year's Sonnets. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
Buck, J. D. The Nature and Aim of Theosophy. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 25 cents.
Channing, W. E. John Brown and the Heroes of Harper's Ferry: A Poem. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.
De Vere, S. The Wonders of Water. From the French of Gaston Tissandier. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Gragg, Agnes. Our Odyssey Club. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.
Green, Anna Katharine. The Mill Mystery. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Hamilton, Prof. E. J. Mental Science: A Text-Book for Schools and Colleges. Robert Carter & Brothers.
Harrison, F. Choice of Books, and Other Literary Pieces. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Hitchcock, J. R. W. Etching in America. White, Stokes & Allen. $1.25.
Howe, Maud. Atalanta in the South: A Romance. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.25.
Janvier, T. A. The Mexican Guide. With maps. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Keenan, H. F. The Ancients: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Lang, A. Letters to Dead Authors. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Lefèvre, M. Wonders of Architecture. With a Chapter on English Architecture, by R. Donald. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Longfellow, S. Life of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. 2 vols. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Lyall, Edna. We Two: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Meunier, V. Adventures of the Great Hunting-Grounds of the World. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Monteith, J. Barnes's Complete Geography. Barnes's Elementary Geography. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Platform and Pulpit Aids. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Ragozin, Z. The Story of Chaldea: From the Earliest Times to the Rise of Assyria. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Richards, Ellen H. Food Materials and their Adulterations. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Rockstro, W. S. A General History of Music, from the Infancy of the Greek Drama to the Present Period. Scribner & Welford.
Roosevelt, T. Hunting Trips of a Ranchman: Sketches of Sport on the Northern Cattle Plains. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.50.
Reed, A. Z. Evolution versus Involution: A Refutation of the Theories of Herbert Spencer, and a Vindication of Theism. James Pott & Co. $2.50.
Salmon, Lucy M. History of the Appointing Power of the President. Papers of the American Historical Association. Vol. I., No. 5. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Sanitary Engineer. Vol. XII. June-November. 1885.
Schmidt, O. The Mammalia in their Relation to Primeval Times. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Shand, A. I. Fortune's Wheel: A Tale. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Snead, T. L. The Fight for Missouri. From the Election of Lincoln to the Death of Lyon. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Spender, Emily. Until the Day Breaks. Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Spofford, A. R. American Almanac and Treasury of Facts, Statistical, Financial, and Political, for 1886. American News Co.
Stickler, Dr. J. W. The Adirondacks as a Health Resort. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.

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